JANUARY—FEBRUARY 1965

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

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EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

JANUARY—FEBRUARY 1965

Vol. 2 Nos. 1 and 2

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY

U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

ELSIE SOLTAR DORMAN, Editor

A MONTHLY JOURNAL OF
FEDERAL-STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
PROGRAMS AND OPERATIONS

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY
Robert C. Goodwin, Administrator
U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
LOUIS LEVINE, DIRECTOR

1965—

YEAR OF CHALLENGE

TOD POTTER
DIRECTOR
OFFICE OF FARM LABOR SERVICE
BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY

The factors that will affect Farm Labor Service operations during 1965, and the challenges, problems, and goals involved, are explored in this article.

Four events occurred late in 1964 which indicate that the rapid change normally associated with agriculture in the United States will be intensified during 1965: The termination of the Mexican supplemental labor program; the regulations which resulted after public hearings were held to consider criteria to govern applications for temporary agricultural employment in the United States under the Immigration and Nationality Act; the Department of Labor's undertaking of a "massive" domestic seasonal worker recruitment program to meet the agricultural labor needs of our Nation; and the passage of the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act.

It is possible only to speculate upon the influence which these events will have upon agricultural employment. But some measure of their influence upon the operations of farm labor services is predictable. More than ever before, it will be necessary to stay abreast of the changes taking place in the agricultural economy—in each local office area, in each State, in each region. During the past century, and more particularly during the past two decades, these changes are reflected in the rapid technological and scientific advance which has made possible a steady increase in the number of machines in agriculture and an accelerated pro-

ductivity. The changes in agriculture are reflected also in declines in the number of farms and in seasonal employment opportunities. Informed opinion anticipates the same pattern will continue into 1956 and beyond, with the agricultural labor force declining by as much as 1.4 million over the 1960–69 decade from about 5 million at the beginning of the decade.

Yet despite these changes and their significance, American agriculture still needs, and will continue to need in the foreseeable future, many thousands of seasonal workers—whose employment and living conditions still leave much to be desired. American agriculture also needs and will continue to need workers skilled in the use and maintenance of modern farm machinery and equipment, and who at present are in short supply. Our activities in 1965 must contribute to the solution of both of these problems.

Termination of Public Law 78

Public Law 78 governed the temporary entry of Mexican agricultural workers into the United States for 14 years. During that period, the administrative machinery of the Mexican program, the largest of our foreign agricultural workers programs, considerably influenced the overall farm placement operation. Since the expiration of Public Law 78 on December 31, 1964, the entry of Mexican farmworkers and all other temporary foreign workers will be governed by the prevailing Immigration and Nationality Act, Public Law 414.

The decision of Congress not to extend Public Law 78 beyond 1964 can be considered a turning point in the use of foreign labor in U.S. agriculture. Since this was obviously a good time to step back and analyze the total supplemental labor operation, the Department of Labor scheduled a series of public hearings late in 1964 to consider criteria for employment of all foreign agricultural workers.

Public Law 414 Regulations

The hearings brought forth abundant oral and written testimony, on the basis of which the Secretary announced that: First, there would be no administrative extension of the situation existing under Public Law 78; second, the responsibilities of the Secretary of Labor under Public Law 414 would be strictly administered in accordance with new regulations which were issued on December 19, 1964; and third, the most massive effort ever made to recruit American farmworkers to fill seasonal agricultural jobs would be instituted and continued.

Among other things, the Secretary announced that:

". . . The key element in the regulations is the specifying of wage levels which are consistent with the principles of Public Law 414: that foreign workers will not be admitted where employed domestic workers are available, or under circumstances which would have an adverse effect upon domestic wage levels . . . .

"There is also recognition in the regulations that terms and conditions of employment other than wages are important in the maintenance of decent working conditions . . . ."

In effect, the regulations mean that farm labor employment conditions comparable to those which had been offered to braceros under Public Law 78 must be offered to domestic workers before growers can request foreign workers under Public Law 414.

The Secretary also specified adverse effect wage levels which vary from State to State. For the first 3 months of 1965, new wage rates were established for the seven States which generally employ foreign labor during that period, ranging from 90 cents to $1.25 per hour, in order to take into account the practical necessity of an orderly and equitable transition period. Beginning April 1, 1965, however, the adverse effect wage levels will range between $1.15 and $1.40 per hour.

Crash Domestic Worker Recruitment

The third factor which will have an influence on our operation during

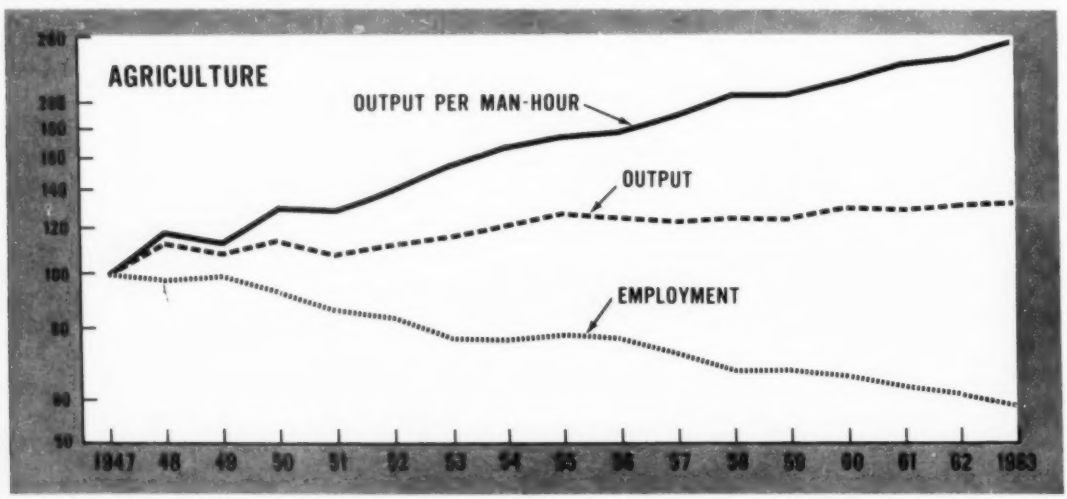
At peak, about 15,000 seasonal workers are required in the cantaloupe fields.

1965 is the intensified domestic worker recruitment program now in progress in the southern part of our Nation. The mobile recruitment team concept which is being utilized is not new. However, the close cooperation among regional, State, and local office personnel, which is essential to an accelerated operation such as this, has never been more in evidence.

The immediate aim of this recruitment program is to fill from 20,000 to 30,000 seasonal farm jobs which, in recent years, have been made available to foreign workers during the first 3 months of the year. Orders for workers for jobs in Arizona, California, Florida, and Texas are being filled wherever possible with local or intrastate workers, and, where the supply of such workers proves insufficient, through interstate clearance procedures.

The fluidity of the mobile recruitment team approach has distinct advantages. They include the fact that a small group of recruiters, working closely together, both solicit job openings and recruit the workers to fill them. Having in many cases visited the actual place of employment and spoken directly to the employer in the demand area, the members of the recruitment team are well prepared to describe job conditions as they actually exist to prospective workers.

The public service cooperation of all of the news media in the crash recruitment program has been excellent.



The success or failure of the present operation will be determined, not by lack of intent or proper effort on the part of Federal or State recruiters—for proper intent and effort have been demonstrated—but by the extent of cooperation of farm employers in making available good jobs paying adequate wages and affording satisfactory working and living conditions; and by the availability and willingness of qualified farmworkers to fill such jobs.

Crew Leader Registration

The fourth factor with which we must contend in 1965 is the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act. The purposes of the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act are praiseworthy. Successful implementation of this program will be more complex than the standard farm placement program. If its goals are to be accomplished, if interstate migrant workers are to receive better treatment from their designated spokesmen, if the undesirable elements are to be weeded out of the migratory work force—then the farm labor staff of the State agencies must enlist the cooperation of all parties concerned. These include the labor contractor, his foremen, his workers, and his employers. Such cooperation will be obtained only where there is adequate understanding of the overall benefit of registration procedures to all concerned.

Both negative and positive results can be anticipated in the early stages of implementation of this legislation. There is the possibility of disruption in the interstate migratory work force and in the Annual Worker Plan. Certain migratory patterns could be jeopardized because of failure of a large number of crew leaders to qualify under the provisions of the Act and implementing regulations. However, migratory routes can be restructured, and the farm placement representative's knowledge of the ingredients of the agricultural economy should assure that there is no serious disruption.

The positive benefits which can be derived from this new legislation are numerous. While the Act is not directly aimed at improving work standards in agriculture, that is certain to be a long-range result, for it will in all probability improve the relationships within migrating groups and thereby improve the quality of the leadership of such groups.

A specific aim of the legislation is to provide for a freer exchange of information between group leader and worker so that interstate migrants will

Mexican agricultural workers who come to the United States during 1965 will be brought in under Public Law 414. It is expected that their number will be greatly reduced.

Increased mechanization in cotton harvesting brings reduction in the need for seasonal workers but increased need for skilled workers to operate the machines.

Photo courtesy BROWNSVILLE HERALD

USDA photo

Migrant crews harvest onions in Michigan.

have full knowledge before leaving home of such factors as wages, transportation, and housing at the jobsite and—equally important—a full knowledge of any changes in the work agreement upon reaching the jobsite. The stipulation in the law which requires that the conditions of the employment be posted in a conspicuous place has a singular importance to the individual migrant worker. It is certain to have a beneficial influence upon overall employer-employee relations.

The Act should also allow the farm placement representative to extend the scope of his activity to wider areas and to individuals previously not served. Through registration procedures, he will come in contact with farm labor contractors and crew leaders who have formerly bypassed the Employment Service network. Through such contacts he will be in a position to make better estimates of the availability of interstate migratory labor in his area of responsibility.

Year of Challenge

And so it is to be anticipated that these events—the demise of Public Law 78, and the new Public Law 414 regulations, the accelerated Federal-State recruitment program, and the birth of farm labor contractor registration—will have sharp impact upon our 1965 program of services to agriculture.

Again we find ourselves in a period of transition. However, the local office farm placement representative will face no situation in 1965 which he did not face in previous years. The crises will be of the same types. I would, however, anticipate that there will be more of them. The problems of supply and demand will be as acute. The solutions will call for calm deliberation, prudent judgment, and prompt action responsive to the immediate situation.

The year 1965 has been referred to by BES Administrator Robert C. Goodwin as "the year of challenge" for the Federal-State Farm Labor Program. We must meet this challenge.

Commission Studies Technological Change

President Johnson has appointed a national commission to recommend specific steps to Federal, State, and local governments "to promote technological changes in the interest of continued economic growth and improved well-being of the people."

The 14-member commission, consisting of leaders in education, labor unions, business, industry, and national groups, will report by January 1, 1966, on:

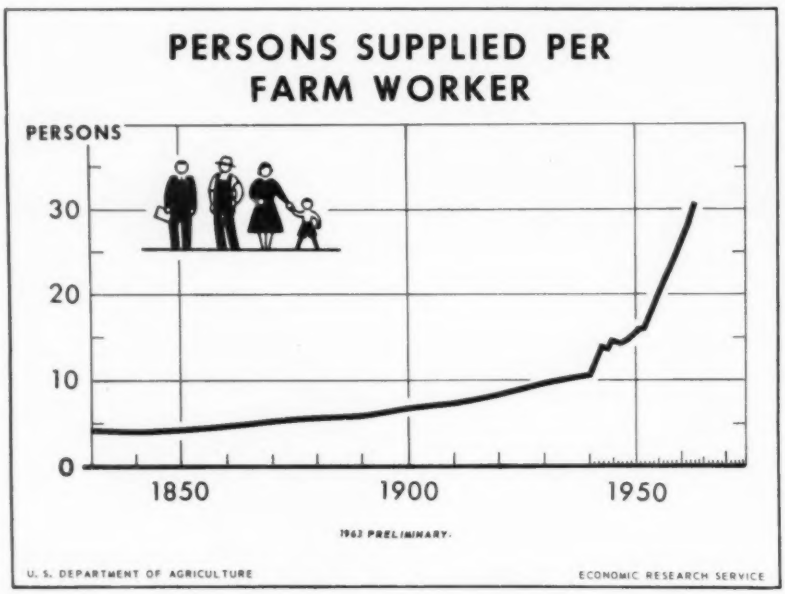
1. The role and pace of technological change, both past and future.

2. The impact of technological change during the next 10 years on occupations and areas, and the overall effects on the Nation's economy, manpower, communities, families, social structure, and human values.

3. Unmet community and human needs to which modern technology might be effectively applied.

4. The most effective means for channeling technology into promising directions.

Howard R. Bowen, an economist and president of the University of Iowa, was nominated as chairman of the commission.



Technology Changes The Sugarcane Labor Force

USDA photo

Hurricane Hilda limited the use of sugarcane harvesting machines.

Mechanization of Louisiana's sugarcane industry has had such impact on the once plentiful labor supply that, when hurricanes damage crops and hand labor is needed, thousands of these workers must be brought in from other areas.

The Louisiana sugarcane industry has played a unique role in the many radical changes in labor utilization resulting from mechanization and other technological advances. During the past 30 years, the production of sugarcane has changed from an operation utilizing hand labor gangs and mule teams to one of the more mechanized industries in the State. Technological change is having a major impact on the once abundant labor force in sugarcane and on the future trends in labor supply and demand.

The 500-acre sugarcane plantation of some 25 years ago, utilizing 200 mules and 150 laborers, is now his-

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tory. On the same plantation today will be found 10 tractors and 10 year-round workers, along with other new types of equipment and machinery. This is indicative of the radical changes which have taken place during these 25 years.

From the beginning of the sugarcane industry, until the early 1940's, labor was plentiful. A common sight in the cane fields was the familiar hoe gang which consisted of some 50 workers on an average plantation of 500 acres. The hoe gang has been replaced by a simple chemical spraying machine operated by one worker. Twenty-five years ago, about 50 workers were needed on this same plantation during the harvest season. The cane had to be cut and stripped of all leaves by hand. Today, a self-propelled harvesting machine, operated by one or two workers, will cut the cane under normal conditions. It is no longer stripped by hand, but is burned behind the cane harvester by means of a one-man operated burning machine.

Mechanization for 25 Years

Mechanization, from its beginning, was continuous and progressive, although sometimes crude. The windrowing machine, no longer in use, was utilized 25 years ago during the late harvest season to cut and lay (windrow) the cane in the middle of the rows to protect it from impending freezing temperatures. The cane was later salvaged and taken to the mill for processing. While windrowing is no longer necessary, during the short time of its usage, the windrowing machine could do the work previously done by 50 laborers.

In the evolution of the sugarcane industry, many other types of machinery and equipment were introduced and utilized. Some equipment, such as mechanical hoes and chemical sprayers, accomplished better results than hand workers and saved on labor and overall crop production costs. Other equipment, such as mechanical loaders, allowed for more efficient operations in conjunction with harvesting machines than hand loading. Introduction of one type of machinery or technology often led to the development of another. For instance, when chemicals were introduced for weed control, a mechanical sprayer had to be developed to apply the chemicals.

In retrospect, early types of machines appear to have been slow and to have required excessive labor for their field use. Improvements were steady, however, and the present-day sugarcane field equipment is as efficient and modern as that in other crops of commercial significance. From the early tractors pulling one-row equipment evolved the present-day powerful tractors pulling heavy equipment that is able to cover three or four rows at one time while utilizing a fraction of the labor needed in the early years.

One of the more recently developed examples of labor-saving equipment is the quarter-drain plow. This piece of machinery, mounted on a tractor and operated by one man, can clean all of the drains on a large plantation, work which formerly required six or more workers for manual shoveling. In every case, the introduction of improved machinery and equipment has led to the gradual and continuing displacement of large numbers of unskilled workers.

Except for occasional years of wind and rainstorms which result in crop damage that precludes the use of mechanical harvesters, the sugarcane industry could be completely mechanized if a cane planting machine were available. Experimental models of such a machine have, until the last year, proved unsatisfactory. However a sugarcane planting machine tested recently shows considerable promise and should, within a relatively short time, be commercially available.

Hurricane Damage

Although storms and hurricanes had not been experienced in many years in Louisiana's sugarcane belt, the crop harvest season of 1963 was disrupted by heavy winds and rains during the middle of the harvest, resulting in about one-third of the remaining crop being blown down. This damage made it necessary to bring some 3,000 field workers into the area to cut lodged cane by hand and to assist in the extra scrapping of cane behind harvesting machines and loaders. Despite the damage, th 1963 crop was harvested with a loss of only about 1 percent.

The 1964 crop faced a much more severe crisis. Just prior to harvest, 90 percent of the Louisiana crop was critically damaged by heavy rains and the 120-mile-per-hour winds of Hurricane Hilda. An estimated 25 percent of the cane stalks were broken, in addition to the cane being blown to the ground in most of the Louisiana cane belt. Damage resulted in mechanical harvesting difficulties and in the need for hand labor.

As a result of Hurricane Hilda, farmers at first indicated a need for some additional 25,000 laborers to cut cane by hand. As harvesting progressed, however, farmers found that cane harvesting machines, particularly those with a pickup attachment, cut the downed cane much better than originally expected. At the completion of harvesting, it was estimated that more than 80 percent of the crop was mechanically harvested. Progress, however, was slow in the machine harvesting of tangled cane; machines covered only 50 to 60 percent of normal acreage in a day. Final estimates of labor needs for hand cutting and the extra hand scrapping of cane behind harvesters and loaders was about one-third of the original emergency estimate.

One-third Local Labor

One-third of this added labor demand was met from within the cane belt. Of the 7,500 workers employed in the 1964 sugarcane harvest, some 5,000 were brought in from other areas. Recruitment was conducted throughout Louisiana and Mississippi, and in some parts of Alabama, Arkansas, and Texas. In addition, 271 British West Indian workers were imported for the harvest work.

In view of the 1963 and 1964 storm complications in the sugarcane harvest operations, thought must be given to the future years and the probable need for further refinements in sugarcane harvesting machinery. Many of today's harvesting machines have been modified with a "pickup"

attachment to harvest downed cane more efficiently. Since Hurricane Hilda, many more farmers have added these pickup attachments, while others are waiting for orders to be filled. There is no doubt that the 1964 sugarcane harvest would have been abandoned without the mechanical harvesters. Hand harvesting of the entire crop would not have been practical; even had sufficient workers been available, costs would have been prohibitive.

Technology Reduces Labor Needs

Although sugarcane is a tropical plant, its production in Louisiana has been put on a sound basis. A well trained staff of sugarcane scientists strive continually to acclimate and adapt varieties to Louisiana's subtropical conditions. While it is not the major crop grown in Louisiana, 322,000 acres of sugarcane were valued at over $162 million in 1963. Since this substantial resource plays an important role in the economy of Louisiana and provides income for many employers and workers, efforts are exerted continuously by the industry to keep it on a sound basis.

In 1926 the cane industry almost went out of existence as a result of mosaic disease which reduced output from 300,000 to 47,000 tons. Scientists of the U.S. Department of Agriculture were able to introduce new varieties and, in due time, the crop was back to normal yields. Since then, yields have continued to benefit from technological advances and, today, are approximately double the yields of the middle twenties.

During recent years, labor displacement in the Louisiana sugarcane belt has resulted not only from mechanization and technology but also from the many economic changes since the end of World War II. Some of the larger urban areas of the cane belt have witnessed unprecedented industrial expansion, while others have felt the industrial transition to a lesser degree. Throughout the area, however, a substantial portion of the farm labor force migrated to industrial work for the much higher wages offered. Consequently, it has become increasingly difficult to find enough on-the-farm labor, particularly of the more skilled type. Present-day problems include the increased need for skilled year-round workers on the sugarcane farms in competition with the increased demand in industrial work offering better wages, at the same time that job opportunities for unskilled farmworkers have decreased.

Weather Determines Labor Need

During planting, the sugarcane crop today requires a limited number of seasonal workers, beginning about August 15 and ending by October 15. Ordinarily, about half of these workers go into harvesting which usually ends by December 31. If a crop, however, suffers extreme wind damage, there will be a demand for many more experienced workers than are available. About half of the seasonal workers required to plant cane come from other areas, and, during a harvest emergency, a great many more must be brought in. Sugarcane farmers of today cannot retain enough on-the-farm seasonal workers to meet emergency conditions.

At the present rate, even those now remaining will soon disappear because of old age or will migrate to

Initial mechanical preparation of bed for planting sugarcane.

Mechanical opening of prepared bed prior to machine or hand planting.

Experimental mechanical sugarcane planter.

Manual planting of sugarcane.

Mechanical cultivation of sugarcane.

industrial work or to other areas of employment. The trend for the future, as now visualized, will be for sugarcane farmers to utilize more off-the-farm workers, as needed. There is also the possibility that a planting machine will eventually be put into operation and that a type of harvester may be perfected to pick up all wind-blown cane. These developments would totally mechanize the industry.

Training for Farm Skills

How will the year-round skilled worker shortage be alleviated? This problem has become increasingly difficult. Some unskilled seasonal workers, displaced by mechanization, can still be found on cane farms as well as in other rural and urban areas. Many of them can be trained to operate machinery and to acquire other special skills needed on modern farms.

During 1964, the Louisiana Division of Employment Security initiated a training program under the ARA. The first program included 25 farmworkers located in the three eastern parishes of the sugarcane belt. Although an evaluation of this training program has not been completed, the results have been of enough significance to warrant plans for the continuation and expansion of this type of program. A similar effort is being planned under the MDTA program which recently went into effect in Louisiana. Continuing efforts will be made to interest present and potential farmworkers in availing themselves of training in skills needed in the sugarcane industry.

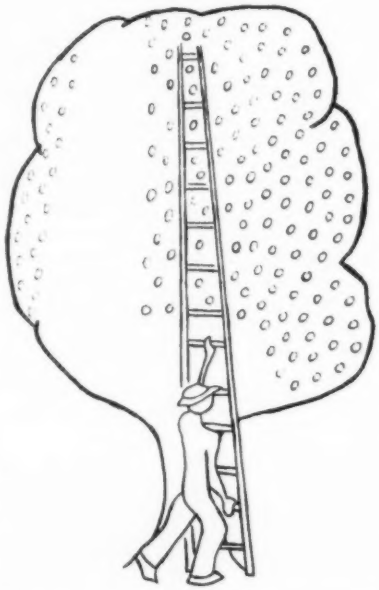
While many unskilled farmworkers have been displaced by mechanization and technological advances in the sugarcane industry, these changes are in keeping with the American drive to attain maximum efficiency in the production of consumer goods. Those jobs which remain in the industry are better than those which existed previously. The displaced farmworkers who have been absorbed by industry are in improved socioeconomic situations. Vocational training, as it becomes increasingly available to displaced farmworkers, will greatly assist workers to adapt to the changing economy.

Mobile Team Recruitment in West Virginia

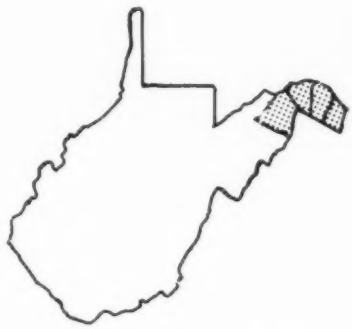
JESSE RICHARDSON

Last summer, an attempt was made to reach into more remote rural areas of West Virginia to recruit farmworkers for the fall apple harvest. The first phase of the operation was informing the rural populace of the opportunities for seasonal harvest work. The second phase was mobile team recruitment in each place where applicant potential was indicated.

The task of contacting farmers in areas remote from the local Employment Service office was successfully performed by 10 vocational agricultural (Vo-Ag) instructors working in cooperation with the local Farm Placement Representative. The instructors, during their normal summer work with farmers, made personal contacts throughout a six-county area from June to September, distributed hundreds of pamphlets, and took work applications for harvest hands for the fall apple harvest. Applications were mailed to the local office at the end of each week.



How to pick apples.—Stand on the ground and pick from the lower limbs of the tree first. Then set the ladder firmly within the tree. Pick upward in vertical sections, so that apples that drop will not knock off and damage other apples below.



The Eastern Panhandle produces over 5 million bushels of apples annually.

The local office FPR provided support and coordination for the work of the instructors. He served as liaison between the six-county area of worker supply and the three-county area of worker demand and arranged radio and newspaper publicity to promote the program. He screened the applications and arranged them geographically by applicants' addresses to determine the places where recruitment should be scheduled.

Mobile team recruitment was scheduled for a 5-day itinerary in mid-September. During the preceding week, Vo-Ag instructors and applicants were notified by mail of the recruitment itinerary. Radio and

Jesse Richardson is Supervisor of Farm Placement, West Virginia Department of Employment Security.

USDA photo

Growers were well pleased with the boys recruited by the Employment Service to pick the apples.

newspaper publicity was intensified for a 2-week period.

Actual recruitment was a four-man operation. Two men with delegated hiring authority traveled to county seats, villages, and, in one instance, to a crossroads store to interview applicants. Qualified applicants were hired on the spot (many appeared carrying a suitcase) and were sent in car pools to the demand area. A third man met the workers at a designated place in the demand area and assigned them to the growers' camps. A fourth person, at the State level, coordinated the recruitment program by receiving daily phone calls from the supply and demand areas and informing persons in both areas on necessary changes in the recruitment operations and objectives. The result was a flexible recruitment program with the recruiters going to the prospects—as far as 60 miles from the local office—and with workers receiving welcome assistance upon arrival in the harvest area.

The number of applicants—160

(*Continued on page 11*)

An Award For Outstanding Service

RICHARD K. KLATT

How can we give special recognition to New York State Farm Employment Representatives for outstanding service to the agricultural and food processing industries? This was the question considered by the State Farm Labor Advisory Committee in 1954, after recognizing that a Farm Rep frequently works all hours of the day and night, sometimes 7 days a week, to provide continuous employment to seasonal workers and to prevent loss of perishable food crops. In performing his duties, the Farm Rep becomes the best promotional agent the Employment Service has throughout the rural communities.

The answer to the question came quickly in the form of a Certificate of Merit award to be sponsored yearly by the Farm Labor Advisory Committee. Its purpose? "In recognition of outstanding service to agriculture and food processing industries during the calendar year, and to further encourage and stimulate continued improvement in providing a better service to employers and employees in these industries."

To be eligible for nomination, a Farm Employment Representative must have held his permanent title for a minimum of 12 months preceding the calendar year for which the award is made. Each District Superintendent of the Division of Employment who has under his administrative supervision one or more qualified individuals is asked to nominate one each year. Nominating statements are prepared in accordance with specified criteria and mailed to the Superintendent of Farm Employment. He checks the statements for eligibility and accuracy and forwards them to the State Farm Labor Advisory Committee for selection of the award winner.

Nominating criteria include several factors which reflect patterns of service beyond that expected in the normal discharge of duties. These include production in relation to the type of agriculture; demonstration of unusual ability to recruit and place workers; extent of participation in community actions closely associated with agriculture and food processing; and personal qualities and initiative in taking constructive action on operating problems and dealing with people.

The actual presentation of the Certificate of Merit is made in the local office where the winning Farm Rep works. Arrangements are made with the local press throughout the area to provide appropriate publicity, including photographs. The fact that the Certificate carries the endorsement of recognized statewide leaders in agriculture, labor, and management adds great importance to the award and contributes markedly to the Farm Rep's recognition in his community.

Richard K. Klatt is Superintendent of Farm Employment, New York State Division of Employment.

Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act

WILLIAM S. FRANK

This article tells the story behind the new Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act and describes the benefits involved for both migrant workers and their employers.

Starting January 1, 1965 Public Law 88–582, the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act, requires that farm labor contractors register with the Secretary of Labor if they contract 10 or more workers for interstate agricultural employment. The certificate of registration must be renewed annually. The new law, in the process of development for the past 5 years, is an attempt to assure more equitable treatment for the migrant agricultural worker by requiring that farm labor contractors and crew leaders meet certain requirements in their relationships with their crew members. In addition to registration of the farm labor contractor, the law requires that his regular or full-time employees make application for an identification card. Such employees generally are bound by the same rules and regulations as are registered farm labor contractors.

The crew leader system has grown by leaps and bounds over the past 20 years. The law aims at correcting some of the abuses which have infiltrated the system, many of which were brought about by the vulnerability of the individual migrant worker. Lacking education, sometimes not even speaking English, as is the case of many who reside off-season in the Southwest, the migrant depends upon the farm labor contractor to act as his spokesman before the employer. Promises made at recruitment may fail to become reality. Sometimes there is deception, for the contractor or crew leader frequently lacks social, economic, or legal responsibility. But more often there is misunderstanding resulting from a failure of proper communication between labor contractor and workers.

Migrant farm labor has been the subject of numerous investigations and studies by Presidential commissions, congressional committees, governmental agencies, church groups, and civic organizations. Two factors stand out in most such studies: Migrants live and work under conditions inferior to those of most other kinds of workers, and there is a need for Federal legislation to regulate the operations of the middle man, whether labor contractor or crew leader. Thus, the birth of this new Federal law. Although legislation was first introduced in 1960, the bill was not enacted until the fall of 1964, and became effective January 1, 1965.

By the time of its passage eight States and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico already had laws or regulations concerning the activities of farm labor contractors. The Federal law supplements the existing State laws.

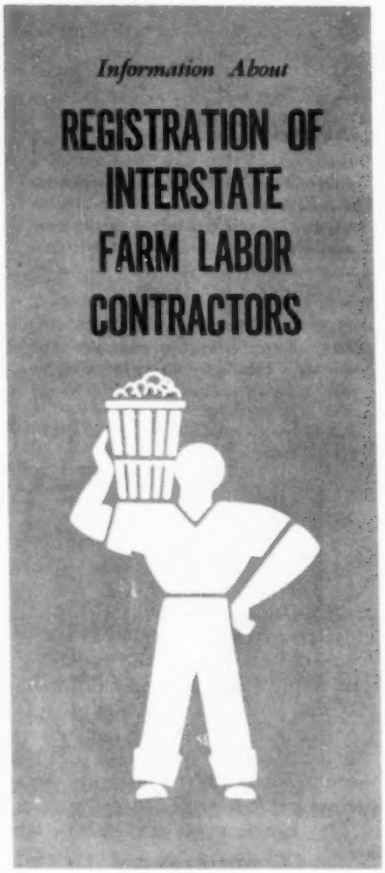
Like any law, it is but a framework depicting a need and providing a solution to that need. Implementation requires that this framework be amplified by specific rules and regulations and that the methods used to assure compliance be clearly spelled out.

The Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act can be said to have five major aims: (1) Elimination of undesirable elements from the ranks of farm labor contractors; (2) requiring motor vehicle liability insurance and compliance with existing Interstate Commerce regulations; (3) improvement in contractual arrangements between farm labor contractor and workers and between farm labor contractor and employer, primarily through adequate disclosure of information by the contractor to his workers throughout the contractual relationship; (4) where called for, improved record keeping by the contractor; and (5) because of increased contact between the farm labor contractor and the Employment Service through registration procedures, better job continuity for all migratory workers.

It should be emphasized that this new legislation does not have the specific aim of improving working or living conditions for migratory workers. It is not a tool which can be used to increase wage rates, provide better housing, or improve transportation practices, other than requiring compliance with appropriate Inter-

William S. Frank is in the Office of Farm Labor Service, BES.

A Bureau of Employment Security leaflet.



state Commerce Commission regulations. Basically, the law attempts to improve communication between the farm labor contractor and his crew members or his employer. Its provisions with respect to disclosure of information make up its keystone.

Many farm labor contractors operate as reputable businessmen. Since some do not, however, the law attempts to eliminate this undesirable element by a fourfold attack. The first step is in the application-taking procedure. In filling out an application, the contractor is required to furnish information on certain practices he uses in relation to his crew members. While the answers provided, e.g., wage payment practices, cannot be used to deny him a certificate, his continued right to a certificate will depend upon the truthfulness of the information provided. Second, the provision requiring registration of regular or full-time employees should contribute to the elimination of false promises made in the name of the crew leader by his designated representatives, e.g., exaggerated wage rates used in recruiting workers. Third, applicants for a certificate of registration must be fingerprinted, and a record of conviction for certain crimes may result in denial of a certificate. A fourth means of improving the moral climate in this segment of the migrant labor force is the use of actual field checks to determine compliance with the law.

The provision of the law which requires that farm labor contractors carry motor vehicle liability insurance recognizes the fact that several States already have requirements in this area. Here, as elsewhere, the provision of the Federal law is meant to supplement provisions of existing State laws. Where the Federal law is more stringent, its provisions are in effect.

The migrant, in a large sense, is dependent for a livelihood upon the integrity of the farm labor contractor. Contracts between these two parties are most often of a verbal nature. Should a farm labor contractor fail to keep his word, the worker has little recourse. The registered farm labor contractor will be required to disclose to crew members, to the best of his knowledge, accurate information on areas of employment, crops and crop activities, transportation, housing, wage rates, and charges for services provided by the farm labor contractor. Conditions of employment must be posted at the place of employment and modified as the conditions change. Rules and regulations concerning housing facilities must also be posted conspicuously if the contractor controls housing.

These factors have unique importance to the interstate migrant worker. He can see the terms of the work agreement in writing and he is kept aware of changes in the initial work agreement. He is in a position to maintain his basic right as an individual to bargain for his services, should, for example, the wage rate drop to a level which he does not consider equitable. Crew members not kept adequately informed on pertinent details of the work contract have a right to register a complaint under provisions of the Act.

An additional advantage which the law provides to the interstate migrant is in the payroll recordkeeping. When the contractor pays the worker either for himself or on behalf of another person, he is required to keep records which must reflect total earnings, withholdings, and net earnings for each worker in each payroll period. Where payment is on a time basis, pay rate and units of time worked must be recorded. Where payment is on a piece rate basis, units of work performed and rate per unit must be recorded. The farm labor contractor must also provide crew members with a statement of sums paid to him resulting from the labor of crew members, as well as sums received on behalf of such migrant workers. He must also provide an itemized statement of sums withheld and the purpose for which withheld. Thus, the worker will have written proof of all his financial transactions with the farm labor contractor.

An indirect benefit to both farm labor contractor and migrant worker will result from more frequent contact with local offices in the Employment Service network through registration procedures in States where the local office is the application-taking agency. Farm labor contractors who previously, for reasons of their own, did not utilize the facilities of the Employment Service will now come to these offices where incomplete work schedules can be supplemented, changes in the labor needs of demand areas can be made known to the crew leader, and plans modified where necessary.

What will be the effect of this legislation upon the migratory work force? At present, migratory workers are excluded from legislation which benefits most other workers. The Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act gives them an avenue of legal complaint should there be abuse at the hands of a farm labor contractor. As a result of such a complaint, a crew leader may be deprived of a certificate of registration to operate as an interstate farm labor contractor. Some contractors may be forced to shift to more ethical methods of operation. The individual farm labor contractor stands to benefit from a lessening of unprincipled competition. The individual migrant stands to benefit from a fuller knowledge of the work agreement.

Mobile Team in West Virginia

(*Continued from page 9*)

compared with 55 last year by usual local office recruitment methods—was not large considering that 11 persons were engaged in this 4-month program. But the payoff was in a reduction of worker turnover which was negligible compared with the usual 50 percent or more. The growers praised the workers sent to them this year. The comment of one grower was typical: "Last year, considering the kind of workers you sent us, we thought you wouldn't be of much help to us. This year you've changed our minds. These are hard working farm boys. They stick on the job and they're good workers."

Our final evaluation of mobile team recruitment is that this method points the way toward successful programs for recruitment of workers who are dependable and qualified for seasonal harvest jobs.

Training Farm Foremen

S. ELDON CULLY

In an effort to increase productivity and reduce migrant labor turnover, the Farm Labor staff in a local office develops a training program for foremen—with interesting results.

M. C. Ralston (right) of San Jose, Calif., explains the correct way to carry an orchard ladder with safety and ease as vocational agriculture teachers practice one of the demonstrations they will use in instructing foremen working on California farms.

Palo Verde Valley growers believe they are developing a way to cut labor needs, while raising worker output—and the whole State stands to benefit.

Tucked away in the Colorado River basin in the southeast corner of California, the Valley's crops provide work about 8 months of each year. But U.S. highway 66, that links California with the Southwest for thousands of tourists and domestic farmworkers, lies 100 miles north. Route 66 funnels thousands of migrants into lush Southern California during winter months, but most domestic farmworkers go north in the spring. All too few turn south.

Early in 1963, the Farm Labor staff stationed at Palo Verde Valley's office at Blythe came to the conclusion that something would have to be done, especially in view of the impending termination of Public Law 78. It was agreed that a reduction in labor turnover would help. The key man was the crew pusher or foreman who creates the "atmosphere" in the field. Perhaps better trained foremen would furnish one approach to reducing turnover and increasing productivity.

With the cooperation of growers in the Palo Verde Valley, the Department of Employment, the University of California, and the Palo Verde Junior College, materials for a foreman training course were developed.

The training course would be a blending of human relations, psychology, and commonsense—aimed at keeping the worker on the farm. It was based on the premise that if a worker could be persuaded, by proper handling and understanding, to stay on the job for 4 days instead of 2, an employer's recruiting difficulties would be reduced by 50 percent.

Enthusiasm about the possibilities of such a course was contagious. Twenty-five farming companies were asked to have a representative at the preliminary discussions. Forty-eight representatives from 30 companies, 1 labor contractor, 2 representatives from grower associations, 4 representatives of the State Extension Service, the University of California, and the Junior College, and 9 members of the Department of Employment attended.

Course Content

The course developed by the Farm Labor Service used a textbook prepared at the growers' expense. Presented by the Palo Verde Junior College as an Adult Education program, it began February 14, 1964. The ten 2-hour sessions were followed by general discussions that lasted from 1 to 3 hours. The course was presented in the Blythe Growers Association building so that the surroundings would be familiar to the foremen. Instructor Lee Beckner's presentation was so outstanding that the class began with 24 students and ended with 28.

The objective of the course was to provide the foreman with tools, concepts, and background that would help him control himself, others, and his job. The classes covered: (1) *Psychology*—stressing physical and psychological needs and their relationship to people's wants and actions; (2) *Personnel management and human relations*—covering concepts such as reserved judgment, human dignity, and motivation; (3) *Communication*—the process itself, the places that it usually breaks down, the importance of feedback and rechecking, and the establishment of responsibility for good communication; (4) *Leadership*—the skills involved and the fact that these skills can be developed—leaders are made, not born; (5) *Sociology*—oriented toward change and what it means to people individually and as they work in groups; (6) *Foremanship*—the job, its position in the management picture, and its importance; the qualities necessary, such as intelligence, maturity, self-motivation, and human relations attitudes; the moral responsibilities of the position in rela-

S. Eldon Cully is Farm Labor Supervisor, California Department of Employment.

tion to both the worker and the owner.

Immediately following the Blythe course, there was a request for another in the adjacent Imperial Valley. Mr. Beckner taught this also. Sixty-five foremen, owner-operators, and labor contractors were graduated. Then followed a deluge of requests from around California and other States. The course seemed to have great statewide potential, but time and budget did not permit Farm Labor Service personnel to extend the course outside their own operating area.

Extending the Program

Discussions got underway at the State level to set up a similar program whereby farm foreman training would be given throughout the State under the Adult Education Program. It was estimated that 95 percent of the agricultural employer associations in the State would want their foremen trained. The first problem was how to train enough "trainers."

In cooperation with the California Bureau of Vocational Agriculture Education, the University of California at Davis designed a course to indoctrinate a pilot group of teachers. Basic objectives were to develop in farm foremen: (1) The ability to instruct new workers in how to do their jobs; (2) an appreciation of the value of providing job instruction; (3) an understanding of supervision and what it entails; (4) the ability to maintain appropriate relationships with the workers; and (5) the ability to handle personnel and relationship problems as they arise.

A general outline of the 20-hour course (ten 2-hour meetings) included major problems of supervision, instructing workers on the job individually and in groups, the instruction process, special techniques for upgrading workers, job relations and effective supervision, and handling personnel problems. Stressed as a foundation for good relations were: (*a*) Letting workers know how they are getting along; (*b*) giving credit when due; (*c*) informing workers of changes; (*d*) using each person's special abilities; (*e*) treating workers as individuals; (*f*) orienting new workers—job requirements. The course also pointed up problems that training can solve in production, safety, maintenance, and personnel.

Well qualified instructors from representative agricultural areas were recommended to take the training. These men would be mobile and available on short notice to conduct evening classes, adult education classes, or any other type of training requested. An initial fund for preparation and printing of materials and 1 week's expenses for the first group of 20 teachers to receive centralized training were an immediate requirement. Through the efforts of the Deputy Director-Farm Labor, growers' associations throughout California contributed enough to establish the program. The Bureau of Vocational Agriculture Education could pick up the program from there with funds available under State law.

Training the Trainers

The first Farm Foreman Training Institute was held August 10–14, 1964, on the University of California campus at Davis. Attending were 18 high school and junior college teachers, one grower association representative from Southern California, and one grower association representative from Arizona. Travel expenses and subsistence were paid from a $3,000 grant from the California Council of Growers Farm Labor Committee. The class was conducted by the chairman of the University of California Agricultural Education and was used to refine future courses for both farm foremen and farm operators. All major farming areas of the State were represented. The instructors were certified by the Bureau of Agricultural Education.

Local Training for Foremen

Managers of the Department of Employment's Farm Labor and full-functioning local offices assisted the participants in arranging training classes in their respective agricultural areas. Farm Labor Service representatives advised on how many foremen needed training in the area; the Department of Education then set up the necessary arrangements.

In many areas, grower associations have contacted school boards to request that training be given and facilities provided.

Each class must include at least 10 persons. All course materials are provided; no previous scholastic attainment is necessary; and, on conclusion, the foreman receives a Certificate of Completion from both the school he attends and the State Department of Education. The certificate is usually coveted, often being the first such document ever received by the participant.

Local Farm Labor personnel are encouraged to take the course as an aid to their work. In addition, they make important personal contacts with people who are doing the hiring, thereby improving job orders, Department acceptability, and public relations.

Since completion of the University Institute last summer, eight classes were begun throughout the State. A number of others are scheduled to start in early 1965. One of the instructors, who is bilingual, is currently teaching a class in Spanish.

A request by the University for a grant to conduct a 2-year study on the Farm Foremen Training Program has been approved. An ex-vocational agriculture teacher, who recently completed his doctorate at Cornell University, has been hired to work with the Farm Labor Service, school teachers, and administrators, grower associations, and farm organizations throughout the State to improve and expand this type of training. Requests have also been received from the California Farm Bureau Federation to establish training courses for farm owners whose operations are not large enough to require a foreman.

Results of Training

Several things have been learned from the classes: (1) Owners, superintendents, and managers should not be in training with field foremen and crew pushers. Field foremen "clam up" and do not participate wholeheartedly when their bosses are present. (2) Since in many cases, the "bosses" do not follow good supervisory practices with

(*Continued on page 44*)

Youth for Sugar Beets

SCOTT REDINGTON and RALPH E. PARLETT

Through promotion and good public relations, a State ES successfully recruits local youth for the necessary, but lowly and uninteresting, short-term jobs of hoeing sugar beets.

Wyoming's greatest agricultural need is not for the permanent ranch or farmhand but for the short-term sugar beet weeder and thinner. Traditionally, the local shortage of this type of worker has been taken care of by recruiting Mexican nationals.

Even before the announcement that Public Law 78 would be terminated, the Wyoming State Employment Service had tried, with limited success, to interest and recruit local workers. The fact that braceros could still be recruited probably had some bearing on how much effort was expended. However, beet hoeing was never appealing nor was the pay enticing. Workers recruited found the work less than glamorous after a few days in the field and quite often quit before the season was over.

With greater emphasis being placed on jobs for youth, renewed efforts were made to place high school students in the fields. This program met with varying degrees of success. Typical of the progress, the problems, the failures, and ultimate success is the story of the Sheridan local office of the Wyoming State Employment Service.

In spite of some initial adverse results, the Sheridan local office has been successful in promoting the use of high school boys as beet workers. The success can be attributed to sound preplanning, good parent and community backing, and a strong desire on the part of the Employment Service to succeed in the recruitment effort.

With parent and community backing, the local office was successful in placing high school boys in the sugarbeet fields.

Getting Community Support

One of the most important steps in a productive recruitment is to establish good public relations through preseason promotion. This should not be limited to one group or one agency. Working with youth makes it important to involve parents and adult groups as well as the employer-farmers. This requires a selling job—one which must be started well in advance of the date when work is to begin.

As many community organizations as possible (such as the Chamber of Commerce and civic clubs) should be sold on the idea. All should be made aware of the program and the plans. While only a few of these organizations are in a position to give practical help, all are in a position to give moral support.

The press and radio must be contacted and their help solicited. Without their full cooperation and support a program such as this is doomed before it starts.

In Sheridan we learned this point the hard way. The first year that we tried to recruit youth to hoe sugar beets, we first contacted the high school and received permission to talk at a special assembly. We came away with several dozen applications from prospective workers. We were naturally quite proud of our afternoon's work. The next morning, however, we started to get what seemed an endless succession of phone calls from irate mothers asking us what we were attempting to prove by trying to hire their boys for such a "lowly and menial job as hoeing beets."

A couple of days later our local office manager requested a few minutes at a Chamber of Commerce meeting, not to sell the program, but to explain it. Fortunately, press and radio representatives were at the meeting. They were quick to recognize the benefits of the program not only to develop a good local source of labor but also to provide a good opportunity for the youths to be initiated into the world of work. Following favorable editorials on the local radio station and in the local paper, the telephone calls continued. Now, however, they were from the parents asking that their boys' names be put back on the list or asking how other boys could sign up. For the first time in a week, it was a pleasure to answer the phone.

One case was especially interesting. The parents brought their boy to the office to sign up. As the beet season approached, they would drop by the office every few days to urge that their son be selected for a crew. The boy was known to be a poor worker in school and on other jobs, but he was strong and healthy, so we decided to take a chance with him. After 2 days' work in the field, he quit. After a long session with the ES counselor and the agricultural interviewer, he returned to work and ended up being the top producer that year and the

(*Continued on page 30*)

Scott Redington is Farm Placement Officer in the Sheridan local office and Ralph Parlett is Information Officer, Employment Security Commission of Wyoming.

FARM LABOR RECRUITMENT

The Department of Labor has launched a massive drive to recruit American workers to fill seasonal farm jobs. This is a result of the termination on December 31, 1964, of Public Law 78 under which thousands of Mexicans had entered the United States each year to work on farms. In announcing the drive, Secretary of Labor W. Willard Wirtz said that the Department's obligation to help farm employers secure enough temporary workers to replace those formerly imported would require intensive effort. "To achieve this objective," he said, "I have directed that the Department's Bureau of Employment Security and its Farm Labor Service work with affiliated State employment security agencies to create an emergency task force for the recruitment of domestic farmworkers." He disclosed plans for 12 mobile teams, each composed of eight members made up of State ES personnel supplemented by Labor Department personnel from the national and regional offices, to begin the recruiting program. Initially, four teams would be based in California, four in Florida, three in Texas, and one in Arizona.

"The Federal-State Employment Service is determined to assist in every possible way to meet seasonal farm labor needs," the Secretary stated. "The success of our efforts will depend on the willingness of employers to offer attractive wages and working conditions, and on the willingness and availability of qualified domestic workers to take agricultural jobs."

TASK FORCE ON MASS LAYOFFS

Last October, President Johnson ordered the Departments of Commerce and Labor and the Office of Economic Opportunity to establish a permanent President's Task Force to assist communities hit by sudden unemployment problems. The Task Force consists of representatives of the three agencies plus the Departments of Health, Education, and Welfare, Interior, Defense, and Agriculture, the Small Business Administration, the Veterans Administration, and the Housing and Home Finance Agency. Participation by other Federal agencies will be requested as needed.

The Task Force has two primary objectives: Mitigating immediate hardship resulting from unemployment, and promoting long-term economic recovery to develop employment opportunities. Upon invitation by the community, Task Force members will work directly with State and local officials and private citizens to determine kinds of action to be taken and to arrange for providing immediate Federal assistance to accomplish both goals within the funds and authorities provided by law. Assistance can be given when a community has experienced a mass layoff or when one is imminent.

The USES will handle worker reemployment problems and training, and will take part in economic development activities directed by the Task Force. ES specialists will be included in the Federal interagency teams dispatched by the Task Force to provide assistance to communities. Manpower information provided by the USES will help the Task Force identify communities that need assistance.

FAR WESTERN FLOODS

The torrential rains, tidal waves, and floods that struck West Coast areas with such violence during the Christmas season had local ES offices working on an emergency basis. According to a report on local office activity in the heavily damaged North Coastal areas of California, work centered mainly in handling huge increases in unemployment insurance claims and in overcoming the difficulties of providing insurance services to cutoff communities. Since the chief concern was for safety of persons and property, most recruitment was for guards, but recruiting later for cleanup jobs was expected to be heavy.

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE SCREENING FOR JOB CORPS

On January 15, officials of the Office of Economic Opportunity and the Manpower Administration signed an agreement regarding the ES screening service of applicants for the Job Corps. The decision is that the ES will be the major, but not the exclusive, screening agency. Although the list of States and cities where ES services will be provided is not complete, first reports reveal 28 States in which the ES will do the total job, and 10 other States where there are restricted areas. Wherever ES service is involved, it will be covered under the national agreement between the Bureau of Employment Security and the OEO.

NEW MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

The White House announced on January 8 the appointment of Stanley Ruttenberg as Manpower Administrator in the Department of Labor. He succeeds John Donovan who resigned to accept a teaching position at Bowdoin College in Maine. Mr. Ruttenberg was formerly research director for AFL-CIO and since November 1962 has served as special assistant for economic affairs to the Secretary of Labor.

Disability Insurance Data's Double Duty

ORVILLE HATLEN and PHILIP CRAWFORD

Records and reports stemming from California's coverage of farmworkers in its disability insurance program are providing new and useful information about the agricultural job market.

In 1961, the California State Legislature extended coverage of the State disability insurance program to agricultural workers, a group which had previously been specifically excluded. Thus, California became the first State to provide payment of hospital expenses and weekly benefits to farmworkers incurring non-work-related illness or injury. This program should not be confused with workmen's compensation, which has covered occupational disabilities of California's farmworkers for many years and which is financed by employer-paid premiums. Disability insurance benefits are funded out of premiums withheld from workers' earnings. Under this program, any person who employs workers and pays $100 or more in total wages during a calendar quarter is subject to coverage. He must deduct 1 percent of the wages of each of his workers and remit the total amount quarterly to the California Department of Employment. To give an indication of the size of the program, employers registered under the disability insurance-agriculture program numbered 42,514 at the end of September 1964.

Employer tax returns and individual worker earnings records, maintained by the Department of Employment in the course of administering this program, provide valuable administrative information for planning, controlling, and evaluating local office services and activities. They also provide useful benchmark statistics for evaluating Departmental estimates of the agricultural labor force.

Also benefiting from these data are other governmental agencies, interested private groups, and the general public, who are now being furnished information not previously available from any source. Periodic published reports include: (1) Report 129, published quarterly, which summarizes midmonth employment, number of employers, and total wages paid statewide and by county, with the statewide data classified by major Standard Industrial Classification Codes; (2) Report 835, published quarterly, which summarizes the number of agricultural workers, the number of employers for whom they worked, total earnings, and average earnings; and (3) Report 830, published annually, which presents the characteristics of an expanded 1 percent sample of workers with earnings in California agriculture. This last report classifies farmworkers by age, sex, annual earnings in agriculture and nonagricultural employment, and quarters of employment. The periodic reports, as well as a variety of special studies, are available to interested agencies or individuals on request to Research and Statistics Section, California Department of Employment, 800 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, Calif.

Several statistics with significant operational implications have already been revealed by these reports. They indicate that a very large segment of the California farm work force is employed less than full time, receives very low annual income, and has short periods of employment. This in turn suggests the possibility of identifying these workers and attempting to learn why their attachment to the agricultural labor force is of such short duration. For example, about half of all individuals

Duane Miller, Assistant Chief of the Data Processing Unit (left), and Geri Coad, administrative staff member (center), explain the console of a data processing system to Ray Roth, Chief of Farm Labor Service.

Orville Hatlen is Supervisor, Farm Reporting Unit, Research and Statistics Section, and Philip Crawford is a Farm Labor Supervisor, Farm Labor Service, California Department of Employment.

761-181 O—65——4

STATE OF CALIFORNIA
DEPARTMENT OF
EMPLOYMENT

TAX YR.	QTR.	EMPLOYEES 1ST. MO.	EMPLOYEES 2ND. MO.	EMPLOYEES 3RD. MO.	CITY	STAT. CODE CO.	STAT. CODE IND.	WAGE COUNT	OFFICE NUMBER
64	2	32	143	109	FRESNO	09	0112	166	694

ACCOUNT NO. 701 0010 PREDECESSOR NO.

A B C COTTON FARMS
1000 HWY 41
FRESNO, CALIFORNIA

DE 7574 (4-63) DI-AG WAGE AND EMPLOYMENT DATA

EXHIBIT I.—The number of employees shown is midmonth employment. The wage count is the total number of workers who had earnings during the quarter.

hired for farmwork had total annual wages in California of under $600. During each quarter, about one-third of the individuals who did farmwork for wages during that quarter earned less than $100. Whether these low earnings result from lack of job opportunity, lack of mobility, voluntary withdrawal from the labor force, interstate migration, or other factors cannot be determined from these data. Much more analysis and considerable field work will be necessary before we can fully interpret and use the raw data now available.

Probably the most useful tool developed to date from the disability insurance reports for use by the local office management team is the DE 7574 (see exhibit I). These forms are prepared on the Department's electronic data processing equipment. Each office receives a copy of this form quarterly for each employer who operates in the area served by that office. The form contains, among other information, the employer's name and address, his midmonth employment for each of the months in the quarter, his Standard Industrial Classification Code, and a count of the number of individuals who received wages from the employer during the report quarter.

These data are used extensively in implementing the Department's farm management program, which determines the need for farm labor services in the local office area and serves as a guide for sound planning, control, and evaluation of farm labor activities. Workload estimates and plans of action, based upon a determination of the principal labor-using crops, of overall labor requirements, and identification of principal employers in the area, assure the most efficient use of available staff in providing serv-

EXHIBIT II.—Address and industry code of each employer are readily available from other records. Because this form is used primarily for benefit determinations, a five-quarter period is covered.

SOCIAL SECURITY ACCOUNT NUMBER	IND.	REQUESTING AGENCY	CYCLE DATE	QUARTER ENDING	QUARTER ENDING	QUARTER ENDING	QUARTER ENDING	QUARTER ENDING
552 | 30 | 9012		93F 694	10-28-64	MAR 63	JUN 63	SEPT 63	DEC 63	MAR 64

EMPLOYER ACCOUNT NUMBER	BRANCH	EMPLOYER NAME	EMPLOYEE NAME	EARNINGS	W E P	EARNINGS	W E P	EARNINGS	W E P	EARNINGS	W E P	EARNINGS	W E P
701 0010		ABC COTTON	JE DOE	.00		245.20	J	.00		320.12	J	.00	
705 1036		BARLEY GRO	JE DOE	120.00	J	.00		1200.00	J	.00		200.00	J
006 2173		DRIED FRU	JE DOE	.00		.00		.00		814.39	S	.00	

STATE OF CALIFORNIA
DEPARTMENT OF EMPLOYMENT

DE 8017 REV 01 (8-63)
WAGE AND CLAIM ABSTRACT

D. I. AWARD WBA	D. I. AWARD MAXIMUM	PROCESS DATE	CLAIMANT'S NAME	CLAIM DATE	BOOK	OFFICE NUMBER	TYPE OF FLAG	REFERENCE	COMP CODE	CODE YEAR

A - U.I. ONLY
S - STATE PLAN
U - VOLUNTARY PLAN
J-DI AG STATE PLAN
L-DI AG VOL. PLAN

ice to farmers and farmworkers. Each employer's midmonth employment during the most recent 12-month period is reviewed to identify, month by month, employers who appear to have a need for this service.

In addition to overall planning, the DE 7574 contributes data which help to tailor services to individual employers. If an employer's midmonth employment remains relatively stable throughout the year, little seasonality is indicated. In addition, if his midmonth employment and total wage items (number of individuals receiving wages during each quarter) are equal or nearly so, little or no turnover is indicated. In these cases, the need for our services is apparently less than for employers whose reports indicate high seasonality, high turnover, or both. The DE 7574 data, therefore, identify agricultural employers who apparently can use the State Employment Service but may not have contacted the farm labor office.

An extension of this analysis provides an internal test of the adequacy of local office employer record files. For example in one large California county, some farmers for whom local office employer records had been maintained either failed to file disability insurance tax returns or their returns indicated far less employment than was shown on local office records. Further study indicated that many of these farmers employed the services of farm labor contractors; others had their work performed by employees of packer-shippers. Conversely, many important employers were identified for whom no local office records existed. This has enabled the office to identify "employer" records which should be removed from active files, to pinpoint employers whose records should be added to the active files, and to expand the employer relations program to employers who have not been served in the past.

One of the functions of the county Farm Labor Representative is observing, recording, and reporting farm labor information. State Report 129 (referred to above) is used to supplement the traditional sources of such information. For instance, Report 129 provides midmonth agricultural employment data for each county in the State. These midmonth figures and the representative's in-season employment estimates for comparable periods are examined for differences and similarities in employment levels, month-to-month movements, annual and long-term trends, and other significant relationships.

For two reasons, however, the Report 129 employment figures can be used only for postseason analysis and as approximations of actual employment. First, duplicate counting of workers may occur because employers report the number of workers receiving wages during the payroll period which includes the 12th of each month during the quarter. In activities subject to high turnover or which are of short duration, workers may have earnings from more than one employer during the subject payroll period, and are therefore reported by each employer.

Second, data from employer tax returns are not tabulated and made available until several months following the end of the report quarter. It is apparent, then, that Report 129 cannot be used as a substitute for in-season work force estimates, but it does provide job market information which has never been available—information valuable for both postseason evaluation of in-season work force estimates and for projecting labor needs.

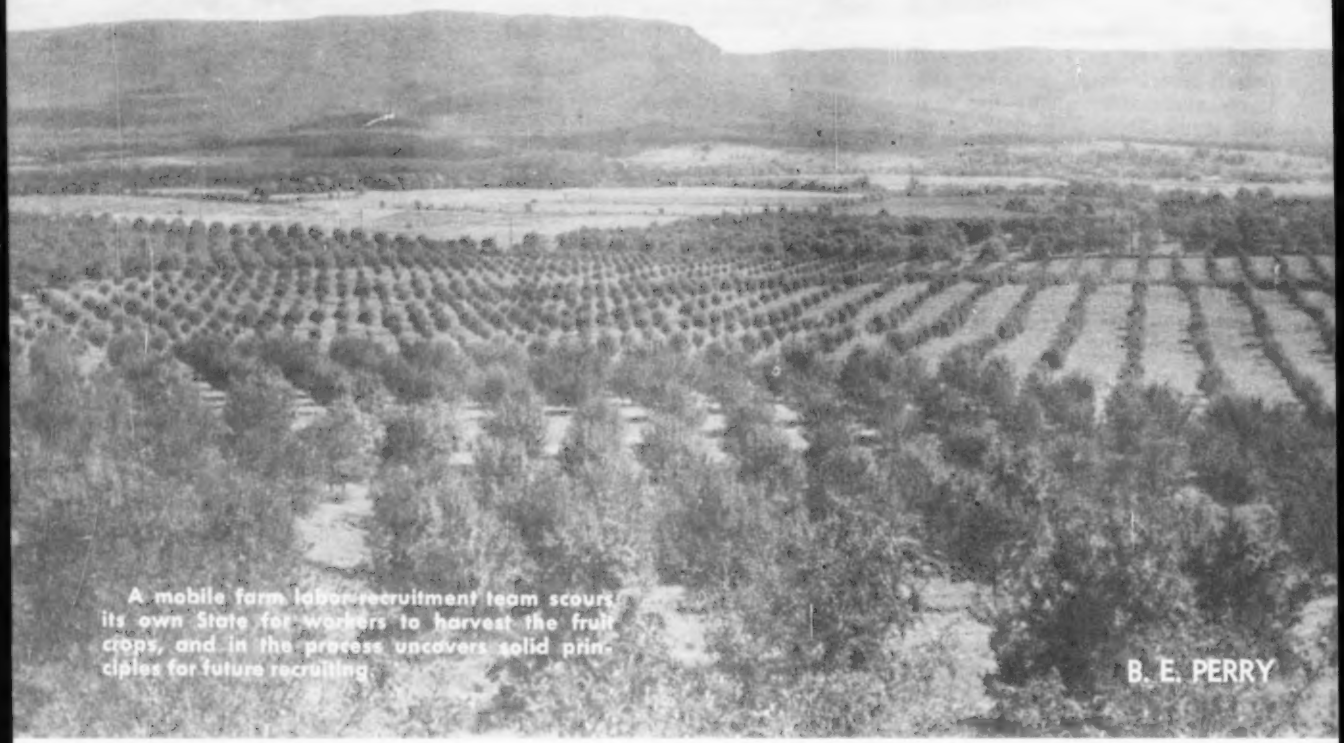
Perhaps the information with the most interesting potential is the individual worker's wage record, DE 507 (see exhibit II). Full utilization of these records for operational purposes has not yet been realized, but several experimental programs have been developed and are now being implemented. One of these originated in the Visalia Farm Labor Office, in the southern San Joaquin Valley. The farm labor office manager was concerned about the extreme seasonal fluctuations in farmworker earnings and employment. Of particular interest were those workers with comparatively high earnings in 1 or 2 quarters of the year—an indication of work ability, incentive, and dependability—but with low earnings the remainder of the year. The office manager submitted to Central Office a list of names and Social Security numbers of farmworkers who seemed to fit this pattern. Earnings records were computed for each worker and returned to the office manager, who then narrowed the list down to workers whose earnings records matched the desired pattern. Each of these workers will be interviewed to determine the reasons for irregular earnings and sporadic employment, and to ascertain the type and extent of assistance the Farm Labor Service might provide.

Significant experiments with individual worker earnings records to date also include: (1) an evaluation of the accuracy and completeness of work histories given by farmworkers to local office interviewers; (2) an evaluation of the validity of local office judgments on the capability and dependability of farmworker applicants; (3) a measure of the effectiveness of MDTA farm training, as shown by trainee earnings and work patterns before and after training; and (4) studies of the work histories of selected groups of workers, including such factors as amount and seasonal pattern of annual earnings; migratory patterns within California; shifts between different agricultural industries and between agricultural and nonagricultural employment; approximate timing of such shifts; extent of apparent withdrawal from the labor force; and, combined with age and sex characteristics available from other sources, the types of workers who fall into these various patterns.

Those familiar with farm labor service operations are aware of the comparative dearth of administrative data, statistics, and accurate labor force descriptions and measurements. Staff limitations have allowed us only to scratch the surface of the potential operational data contained in the agricultural disability insurance records. Greater knowledge of the characteristics of the agricultural job market is an essential first step toward more effective utilization of the domestic work force.

We believe that increasing demand for such information will soon require that this extensive body of data be explored in depth.

A Mobile Team Recruits Apple Pickers



A mobile farm labor recruitment team scours its own State for workers to harvest the fruit crops, and in the process uncovers solid principles for future recruiting.

B. E. PERRY

Scenery in Virginia overflows every countryside—apple pickers are not so abundant. A mobile farm labor recruiting team, operating throughout the State during July and August of 1964, attempted to find out if Virginia labor could be recruited to fill seasonal jobs in apples and other crops. Their efforts produced a number of effective recruitment principles which will be put into effect again this year.

For many years, growers within the State have been in dire need of workers during the harvest of fruit crops from August to November when almost every State on the Eastern Seaboard has labor problems of its own.

When the results of the pooled interviews in Florida were tabulated, it was obvious that the number of workers available would be insufficient to harvest the expected bumper crop of fruit in Virginia. In view of the prospective termination of Public Law 78 with the loss of great numbers of Mexican workers, the possibility of several central and western States tapping into this decreasing supply of workers had to be considered. Experience indicated that the supply of local help was also decreasing rapidly in the fruit areas because of the inroads made by industry. Something new was necessary to obtain the required workers.

After consultation with States of potential supply, we decided to scour our own backyard in the hope of finding suitable applicants. It was determined that remote rural areas in southwest Virginia's mountainous region would be the most logical place to explore as an undeveloped source of farm labor. Fourteen local office areas with high rates of unemployment were selected for recruitment.

All local offices were provided copies of the clearance orders calling for apple pickers to start work shortly after the first of September. Publicity for local newspapers, radio spot announcements, and posters were

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Housing in Virginia's apple growing belt. This camp, near Berryville, has 100 rooms, 2 kitchens, 2 crew leader's rooms, a recreation hall, and modern sanitary facilities.

prepared and distributed to the 14 selected offices. County agents were contacted well in advance of the recruitment.

Personnel to make up the modified team consisted of an assistant from the State administrative office, the farm placement supervisor assigned responsibility for the local office area, the local office manager, and the local office farm placement representative. This group developed into an efficient team. Managers sent out publicity and distributed posters which were timed to appear or to be broadcast prior to the recruitment scheduled. The local office farm placement representative searched the files and called in potential applicants.

New applicants who reported in response to the publicity were registered and scheduled for interview as quickly as practicable. Applicants were usually interviewed in groups after the usual check of the registration card to insure that the applicant possessed the basic qualifications for the job. Since a majority of the applicants were not familiar with fruit picking, a detailed description of the job, living conditions, transportation, and pay were discussed. Upon acceptance, applicants were informed that bus tickets would be forwarded to the local office for their use at a later date. This date was to be determined by development of the crop, which, of course, depended on the weather.

The response of those selected applicants called in was very encouraging. It was also interesting to note the attention that local growers displayed in this project. Several offices received orders for apple pickers for the first time in many years. These orders were considered first priority for the local office, and many placements resulted from this effort. Fruit growers and applicants both have a better understanding of the Farm Placement Program, as well as of the entire State Employment Service program as a result of their participation.

Enthusiasm and interest shown by the applicants during the recruitment was most encouraging. However, many applicants were disappointed that they could not start work immediately. While a delayed growing season postponed the need for workers and seriously hampered the total recruitment effort, a number of solid recruitment principles were uncovered which will be put into effect in future endeavors.

A second recruitment attempt showed that labor is available within reasonable distance of the job. During the early part of September, after

A newly constructed camp for temporary farm labor near Syria.

This cooperatively owned camp for temporary farmworkers near Catawba is one of many in the area.

Apple picking, at peak in late October in Virginia's Northern Shenandoah Valley near Winchester, requires a considerable increase in labor supply. Those recruited for the temporary jobs must be reasonably strong and healthy in order to balance and handle loads on high ladders.

consultation with representatives of the District of Columbia agency, it was decided to undertake positive recruitment in Washington, D.C. The D.C. agency was most cooperative in this endeavor. Hundreds of flyers were passed out, news releases were printed in local papers, and spot announcements were broadcast over radio stations. The team for this effort consisted of a Virginia Farm Placement staff member, a grower representative, and local office personnel to prescreen applicants. Selected applicants were requested to return on Tuesday of the first week for final screening and loading onto a chartered bus at the door. When it proved impractical to charter buses, it was decided to use the regular bus service. Tickets were provided and bus departures were frequent.

The Washington, D.C., recruitment was much more productive than the recruitment in southwestern Virginia; 70 percent of the applicants selected were referred to the job, and 16 percent of those selected stayed until the end of the season.

The recruiting situation, demonstrated the adaptability of a mobile recruiting team for either interstate or intrastate recruiting.

Some guidelines for future recruiting efforts have been developed:

1. Recruiting should be conducted at the time of need, and workers must be referred or shipped out without delay.
2. Job descriptions should be in clear simple language.
3. Large photographs showing housing, terrain, and working conditions would be of great value.
4. Wage rate expectations should be clear and accurate for piecework conditions.
5. The distance workers will travel must be considered as an important factor.

Overall results gained from the mobile team recruitment must be evaluated in terms of experience and knowledge gained. An overlooked labor source has been tapped, and the necessary recruitment techniques through which it may be more fully utilized have been at least partially developed.

DAY-HAUL POOLS

STEPHEN J. CESARE

Full-time supervision of local day-haul pools, centrally located pickup spots, and cooperation of police and city officials are helping a State attract more local harvest hands.

With policy changes impending that would affect the supply of seasonal farmworkers, New Jersey's Bureau of Farm Placement has found it necessary to expand its recruitment of local domestic workers to meet the labor needs of growers. Working in cooperation, New Jersey and Pennsylvania agencies have, for many years, conducted a vigorous campaign to maintain a sound day-haul program. However, the diminishing number of farmworkers from other sources makes it imperative that efforts be stepped up and everything possible be done to marshal all available local workers.

During the past 5 years, the chief objective of New Jersey's day-haul program has been to gain farmer acceptance of local labor. The agency's efforts have been so successful that, on occasion, we have found ourselves with insufficient local workers to fill the day's needs. This increased demand for local hands, along with a reduction in the number of people availing themselves of this work, has caused a reversal in program emphasis. Current efforts are aimed

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primarily at attracting potential workers to farm employment. Encouraging farmers to use local workers has become secondary.

The initial step in the campaign to broaden the scope of participation by local people was the assignment of full-time assistants to supervise local, established day-haul pools. In local farm areas, a centrally located pickup spot has been selected where workers can report and be picked up for work. Where necessary because of traffic, sanitation, and similar matters, the cooperation of the police department and city officials was obtained. Although many problems are general to all areas, we found that procedures had to be flexible enough to meet certain specific needs in each individual area. By having a full-time assistant on the spot, a smooth, efficient operation—satisfactory to both farmers and workers—has been assured.

The Bridgeton Area

One of our day-haul pools is located in the southern part of the State at Bridgeton. Years ago, farmers would pick up workers at their residences scattered throughout a broad geographic area including the city of Bridgeton and surrounding rural sections. This practice was limited and involved only 50 or 60 workers a day for very short periods of time. In 1959, the Bureau of Farm Placement designated a central pickup spot where all workers could report and where the growers could obtain harvest hands. The police department and city officials cooperated in the establishment of the supervised area. As a public service, the Bridgeton radio station assists the day-haul pool operation each season by appealing to local residents to report for harvest work.

While the practice of growers picking up local people is not new, the promotion and supervision of an organized labor pool have generated increased interest in, and use of, local hands. The number of workers reporting has risen from about 200 on a peak day in 1959 to 360 on a peak day of employment during the 1964 season. Currently, 12 growers use the supply at the local pool, as well as 10 qualified crew leaders who supplement their normal crews in this way. In addition, one grower, who provides a personalized service by bringing workers from their homes in the farm bus, supplements his regular supply by picking up additional workers at the pool.

While it is conceivable that sufficient job orders might not always be available, this has not happened at the supervised pool at Bridgeton. On the contrary, the supply of workers has not nearly met the demand, and agency plans are now aimed at securing more workers for 1965.

The Camden Area

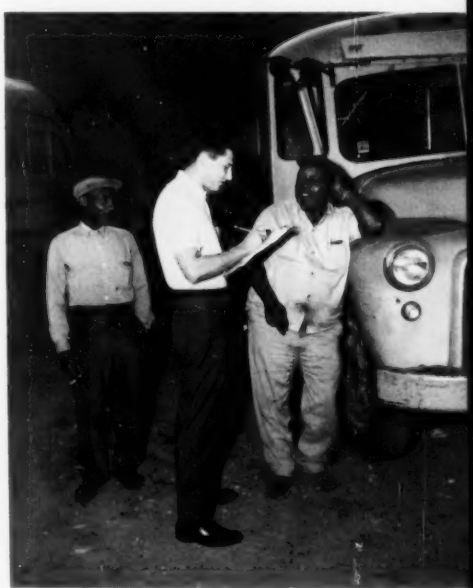
Another highly successful pool has been established for the Camden area. Here, the operation is slightly different from the one in Bridgeton. Because of the limited amount of farming in the area, it was more feasible to encourage the crew leader system. Qualified, licensed crew leaders pick up a majority of the workers reporting to the pool, transporting them to adjacent localities where available work has been scheduled by the Farm Placement Representative. At peak periods, this pool yields approximately 275 workers a day for numerous crop activities, principally blueberry picking.

A closer look at the operation of the Camden pool will show some of the many problems which are encountered. Points to be kept in mind are the safety of those coming to the pool, adequate space for the workers to congregate and for buses to park, and the elimination of traffic hazards. As its use increased, the Camden pool outgrew its original loading zone. The cooperation of the New Jersey Highway Department, the local police department, and interested citizens was solicited in selecting and preparing a new and better location. The site chosen for the new loading zone was covered with derelict automobiles and other debris. In 24 hours, the police department, through its traffic bureau, had the area cleared.

Improved conditions and the increased use of the pool by workers attracted an itinerant caterer. He stops at the pool site every morning for the accommodation of the workers arriving in the early hours. The improved loading facilities and the good catering service have done much to help the agency maintain good relationships with the workers and crew leaders in the area. In turn, we have been able to fill the labor needs of the local farmers.

The Trenton Area

The continued search for available local labor spurred interest in other



Walter Boyle, one of New Jersey's seasonal farm representatives, checks with crew leader Roland Stanley on crop activities and the number of workers used.

A caterer makes breakfast available to harvest hands who have to report by 6 a.m. to the supervised day-haul loading station at Camden, N.J.

municipalities surrounding prime agricultural areas. The Bureau of Farm Placement conducted several meetings with crew leaders in the Trenton area to ascertain what the agency could do to stimulate a day-haul type of program. After many suggestions were considered, the agency decided on two locations in Trenton and obtained the approval of city officials for the development of the selected areas. Through the efforts of the police department, traffic was coordinated and other courtesies were extended to the crew leaders to facilitate the loading operation. Again, special care was exerted for the safety of the workers. The Farm Placement Bureau provided a full-time seasonal assistant to supervise the loading areas and to give assistance to crew leaders and workers. This is the first year that full-time supervision has been provided; it has stimulated interest to a point where more than a dozen crew leaders engage some 460 workers at peak periods for area farmwork.

Since New Jersey is a demand State for seasonal farm laborers, the three established, supervised pools have been of tremendous value in meeting the increasing needs for local seasonal farmhands. The establishment of new pools will depend largely upon the availability of people interested in this type of work, as determined by surveys by the Bureau of Farm Placement.

Our experience has proved that constant surveillance through on-the-spot supervision, cooperation of local officials, and flexibility in operations are the keys to the growth and continued success of organized day-haul pools.

Career Guide for Demand Occupations

The U.S. Employment Service released the latest edition of its *Career Guide for Demand Occupations* in February. The *Guide* presents information on 72 occupations for which there is present or expected need—from automobile mechanics to professional engineers and from clerk typists to clinical psychologists. The information contained in *Career Guide* is useful to counselors and those concerned with training and education.

Why Not Use Local Youth?

HOMER BUNN

Over 95 percent of all workers used in North Carolina to detassel corn are high school youths.

A State experiments with using local high school youth for harvesting its seasonal crops, and finds this a satisfactory way to meet the heavy needs for farmworkers.

Securing an adequate supply of seasonal and year-round workers for the wide diversity of crops produced in North Carolina presents a problem that increases each year. Crop harvests cause a series of peak labor demand periods beginning in May and continuing through October of each year. Mechanization has provided relief in the harvest of corn, cotton, and peanuts and has partially alleviated the problem in the white potato harvest. However, tobacco, the major crop produced in the State, continues to require large numbers of workers; and blueberries, other fruits, and mixed vegetables also place heavy demands on our labor supply.

With a steady improvement in North Carolina's economy in recent years, nonagricultural employers are competing actively for available domestic workers. Usually the rate of pay offered is higher than in farmwork, so fewer adult male workers are available for farm jobs. Education and training programs have prepared many workers for permanent and better paying jobs, and the impact has been apparent in all areas of the State.

To assess and plan for farm labor needs, extensive studies and surveys have been conducted by North Carolina Farm Placement personnel. The information obtained about work patterns and composition of work groups revealed some amazing facts. In the harvest of over 425,000 acres of tobacco, which employs about 250,000 seasonal hired workers, over half are youths under 22 years of age. The same is true in the harvest of blueberries, employing about 20,000 workers. In all other crops harvested in June, July, and August, the same pattern prevails. Production of hybrid seed corn more than doubled in 1964 and is expected to double again in 1965. The detasseling operation takes from 5 to 7 weeks, and over 95 percent of all workers used to detassel corn are high school youths. The studies also revealed that the harvests of tobacco, blueberries, cucumbers, and mixed vegetables lend themselves naturally to young workers because their dexterity is usually better than that of older workers. The same is true in detasseling corn.

We found from our surveys that turnover of seasonal farmworkers was high. We also found that there were areas where labor was available but had not been utilized. For instance, workers had no knowledge that work was available in adjoining areas, while growers who needed workers were not aware that workers were underemployed elsewhere.

Analysis of our surveys brought some definite conclusions:

- With the number of youth workers available for the farm jobs increasing steadily, they must provide part of the answer to our needs. An incident in 1963 convinced us that we needed to explore the use of youth workers in the high schools. A grower of blueberries in eastern North Carolina found himself in desperate need of workers. We placed spot radio announcements requesting youth workers to report to the local employment office. At 6 o'clock the next morning, over 300 youths stormed the office to apply.
- A comprehensive labor survey which includes the registration of available workers as individuals and crews must be conducted each year.
- More careful screening and selection of workers are essential to reducing turnover.
- Better exchange of job market information is necessary if we are to utilize local workers fully.

During 1963 and 1964, North Carolina prepared manifests on all intrastate migrants, which provided us with basic information necessary to

Homer Bunn is Assistant Farm Placement Supervisor, North Carolina Employment Security Commission.

Day-haul groups made up of only youth were used for various crops.

plan a labor supply. In January 1964, North Carolina Farm Placement personnel began a comprehensive survey, with each representative responsible for his assigned area. Year-round workers, seasonal day-haul workers, organized crews, and youth were interviewed and registered. All pertinent information was recorded, and organization of new groups and crews was stressed.

Of particular significance was the emphasis on youth. During the labor survey, high schools were visited in each area. School officials, parents, and civic clubs were contacted and requested to support this recruitment and registration of youth workers. All interested students were assembled and informed about the job opportunities available. Pay, transportation, work requirements, and hours were covered. Interested students were given registration forms to carry home and complete. The registration required the consent of parents, a statement on physical health, and a pledge to complete the job. On a subsequent visit to the schools, each student was interviewed personally to ensure full understanding of what was involved.

The production of hybrid seed corn is a greatly expanding industry in North Carolina.

Day-haul groups consisting entirely of youth workers were utilized to work in seed corn, blueberries, cucumbers, and tobacco. However, some areas of the State provided no agricultural work during June, July, and August; in these areas, boys were recruited to move into eastern North Carolina for the tobacco harvest. This harvest period covered about 6 weeks. In all cases, whether day-haul or live-in, close supervision was provided by school faculty members or growers who cooperated in the program.

The value of this approach to the use of youth workers was demonstrated on one youth project which involved detasseling 2,000 acres of seed corn. Over 300 youth workers completed the job with less than 10-percent turnover. Morale was excellent among the workers and the quality of their work was outstanding.

In 1965, this project is expected to increase to 4,000 acres of corn utilizing 600 youth workers, and in 1966 to 6,000 acres, which will require over 1,000 youths. We expect to be able to meet this challenge.

After evaluating 1964 activities, we decided to begin our 1965 labor survey, recruitment, and worker registration in November. This allows us to offer immediate employment on Florida recruitment orders for agricultural workers. It also provides us with information to use at our Annual Farm Labor Conference to determine needs for workers which cannot be met from intrastate sources. The survey will continue through October 1965.

North Carolina reduced the number of interstate migrants used in all crops during 1964, and we anticipate a further reduction in the 1965 harvest. We know that not all of the problems will be solved, but the challenge to try is stimulating.

NOTICE

The drawing which appeared on page 12 of the November issue of the REVIEW was taken from the RECORDER, the monthly publication of the New York State Division of Employment. The artist was George J. Stockler, an employment interviewer in Local Office 20 in Utica, New York.

The REVIEW regrets that credit was not given with the drawing.

Selecting Year-Round Farmhands

MARY BOYDSTON

Walter Schwarz, who successfully operates a 1,000-acre farm with the help of his son and one hired worker, uses ES services exclusively.

Joe Kucko came to this country early in 1961 with farm experience on small acreage in Yugoslavia. In October 1963, the Kansas City local office placed him on a combination farm and dairy job on the large farm of Walter Schwarz. The farmer is well pleased with his progress.

An area's acute shortage of year-round farmhands keeps a local office busy with continual recruiting and selection of desirable applicants to meet the need for these workers.

Despite intensified recruitment, we are experiencing a chronic, critical shortage of qualified farmhands for year-round jobs in the four-county Kansas City, Mo. area.

To alleviate this shortage, we are constantly trying to attract more and better workers through our volunteer farm placement representatives, farm labor bulletins, job inventory, inter-area recruitment, and radio spots and newspaper publicity, as well as through MDTA farmhand training classes. We even recruit workers through employers. This method is effective when employers run ads and send us their surplus applicants.

Because of our continuing demand for farmhands a qualified applicant is usually placed on a job on his initial visit to the office. For this reason our active application file is practically nonexistent.

When we call an applicant from the waiting area for interview, we first notice whether he is neat and clean, and if he has a physical handicap, whether it will interfere with his performance on the job. The way he moves may be some indication of his work habits. Does he have a vigorous,.ambitious walk or does he barely ooze along? If he has been drinking, this is usually reflected in his walk, as well as his converation. It is never our intention to jeopardize our standing with employers by referring an applicant who has been drinking. During the interview, we look at the applicant's hands. It takes only a moment to distinguish the bleached hands of the restaurant worker from the tanned, rough looking hands of most farmworkers.

Our primary concern is the amount and recency of an applicant's farm experience. Farm mechanization has probably made greater strides in the last 10 years than in the previous 50. This is the age of chemical weeding, flame cultivation, hydraulic lifts, power takeoffs, power steering, and power brakes. If an applicant has been away from farmwork for 8 to 10 years it would be folly to turn him loose with a four-row corn planter, much less a late model corn picker. It could be physically dangerous to the unskilled operator as well as financially disastrous to the employer. A new tractor rig with just a two-row mounted picker represents roughly a $7,500 investment.

Married hands need a car and furniture, plus checkable references. The farmer's idea of checking a reference is to pick up the phone and call a former employer rather than to write. Reference letters tend to get put aside and may never be answered. One of the main reasons for checking references is to determine if the applicant drinks to excess. We have learned that in some cases it is better to ask, *"How much* do you drink?" rather than, *"Do you drink?"* Employers have about given up trying to get references on single men and rely instead in personal interview. The only exception to this is in the hiring of a machine milker.

Mary Boydston is a Farm Placement Representative, Kansas City local office, Missouri State Employment Service.

Tobacco and hay are among the local crops which offer jobs for year-round farmworkers.

If the unmarried applicant does not have work clothes, we send him to the Salvation Army for an outfit. Employers who have used single men for years usually have clothing on hand which has been left by previous workers. Transportation is never a problem for the single hand. Usually an employer will come to pick him up in order to get him started on the job.

Employers are more selective when hiring married farmhands. This is because of the trouble, time, and expense involved in changing men. It is relatively simple to fire a single man if he does not perform adequately, but it is much more complicated to replace a married hand.

It is difficult to place family men with more than four or five children, since a large family probably could not get along on the salary, and the man would eventually become dissatisfied. Currently, jobs offer $200 to $215 per month or $45 to $50 per week for married men and from $75 to $125 per month or $25 to $30 per week, plus room and board, for single men. Dairy jobs pay from $25 to $50 per month more.

There is a tendency among employers to favor men from 20 to 45 years for row crop and tractor work. They prefer men from 45 to 55, or even 60, for farm maintenance and livestock care and feeding.

If the wife of the applicant is in the waiting area, it is desirable to draw her into the discussion of job location, housing, and wages before making a referral. We can then be sure that she agrees to her husband's accepting farmwork and that she is willing to move to a farm. Second, if she appears to be the type of person who monopolizes the interview, we try to explain that employers prefer to have the husband answer questions.

Employers who have not had occasion to recruit a new worker are generally not fully informed of the current shortage of regular farmhands and they tend to establish rigid hiring specifications. After years of experience in servicing such orders for workers, we have come to know just how far we can deviate from unrealistic specifications and still make acceptable referrals.

(*Continued on page 50*)

A Girls' Harvest Corps

ROSCOE J. WEST

Youth Corps workers pick strawberries under supervision.

Hundreds of youth looking for summer jobs in some parts of the State and, at the same time, a crying need for agricultural workers—this was the picture facing the Governor's Youth Employment Committee in Oregon after a 17-county survey made in 1963. Yet thousands of youth in local berry and bean fields were proving that they could do the kind of work that was going begging.

Was there a way to get these job-hungry teenagers and unfilled jobs together, To test the feasibility of doing this, the committee planned a pilot program early in 1964. Harvest teams of 25 to 30 high school students were to be housed, fed, and employed under competent supervision by strawberry growers in the demand areas. The project was named the "Oregon Youth Harvest Corps."

After a thorough canvass, the Employment Service found four growers with housing facilities and a willingness to cooperate in the experiment.

Roscoe J. West is Assistant Farm Placement Representative, Oregon State Employment Service.

Most of the living units were of the large family type. To lower costs, two growers offered to pay a working counselor, or group leader, 25 cents per girl per day above her earnings as a picker to supervise a group of 8 to 12 girls and to oversee the purchase of groceries and preparation of meals by the girls. Each group was to arrange its own transportation or have it provided by a home-area sponsoring organization.

Radio, television, and newspaper publicity in the supply areas, followed by personal work through organizations, produced enough girls to fill the orders. But home-area counselors were hard to find in the short time available. Home-area counselors were preferred, as it appeared more likely that parents would be willing to send their teenagers with someone known and trusted. Mothers, youth workers, teachers, college students seeking credit for group-counselor work and other possible sources were checked.

As it worked out, several mothers, one grandmother, and several college girls majoring in social work or education acted as leaders. Some groups chose assistant counelors. The younger counselors—just a few years older than the girls—were the most successful. The girls responded to their encouragement and direction in the field and enjoyed a greater feeling of camaraderie in off hours. Most groups were able to prepare their meals satisfactorily and at quite reasonable cost, some under a dollar per person per day.

Earnings varied widely. As the season was slow and rainy, whole days and parts of days were lost. A few girls got sick; others stayed only a few days. Because of the delayed season, some returned home early to carry out other plans. Most who stayed and applied themselves at one place averaged $3 to $4.50 per day. Those who remained 3 weeks earned $70 to $80, with two of the college-student counselors earning $156 and $180.

At another place, where a very competent woman had charge of the whole crew, the picking lasted 5 weeks with longer working hours. These girls started early in the morn-

Housing for 60 Harvest Corps girls who worked 5 weeks on this farm.

ing, laid off in the heat of the day, then picked in the evening. They made $130 to $330 in the 5 weeks. A few later picked raspberries and pole beans. Most girls interviewed after returning home said they would like to go again.

From the grower's standpoint, some added problems and expense are involved and less production per worker is realized than with the experienced migrant family worker he might otherwise house, if obtainable. Average production can be expected to increase, however, if operation of the program is continued and a significant proportion of the workers gain experience. Realizing that the end of Public Law 78 will mean greatly increased competition for migrant workers and a great reduction in numbers available for the Northwest, growers are anxious to expand their use of harvest teams next year.

Local offices in supply areas believe some expansion will be possible, perhaps doubling this year's total of about 150 girls employed. Some may try groups of boys. In time, the Youth Harvest Corps is expected to grow, as successful workers spread the word and encourage others to take advantage of the earning opportunities. However, forseeable expansion cannot fully meet labor demands should there be a substantial reduction in the number of migrants in Oregon. Last year's peak was 14,515, so the Youth Harvest Corps promises to make only a small dent in any future labor shortage. It renders real service, though, to youth seeking jobs and work experience and to growers whose crops must be harvested by hand.

YOUTH FOR SUGAR BEETS
(*Continued from page 14*)

following year. His school grades improved and, to everyone's surprise, he graduated with his class. His parents later told us that the only thing that kept their boy out of the State Reform School was those two seasons on the end of a beet hoe.

The beet growers must also be sold on the program. Once a farmer agrees to take youths, the work of the Employment Service is just starting. We must select, to the best of our ability, the youth who will do a good job for the farmer. We find that we cannot select on age, height, or weight, although these factors have some bearing. We must go deeper and try to get those boys who, through strong personal motivation, really want to work.

Supervising the Crews

No matter how good the boys are, they are still boys, and we must see that they are strictly supervised either by the farm employer or other carefully selected adult.

When a crew is made up, we tell them that they are going out to do a man's work. We tell them that they will be treated like men and are expected to act like men. We also tell them that if they do not produce, they will be paid off and let go. We tell them that the work is hard and the rows are long, and that it is up to them to decide if they want to be a part of the crew.

When working, the boys should be spread out so that several rows of beets are between them. This cuts down on idle conversation and eliminates much of the horseplay. Another must is to leave transistor radios in the truck—nice to listen to during lunch break, but poor to carry when weeding beets.

When starting a new crew, we ask each boy to stand by the person he would like to work with. Then we make sure that one boy of the pair is assigned rows at one end of the field, and his pal is assigned rows at the other end. Just another one of the things that we have learned by experience.

Our youth beet program in Sheridan has had its problems, but we feel that our successes have overshadowed our failures. During the 1964 season, over half of the boys who signed for work had worked during previous years. These boys came from every type of home and family background. Sons of doctors, lawyers, carpenters, laborers, and welfare recipients—all have signed up. All have worked. All have done a good job.

These boys, contrary to what might be expected, are not looked down on by others in their age group; instead, they are highly respected.

We are most enthusiastic over our youth program. It has worked. It has made money for the boys and the farmers, and we are sure that it will continue to work.

Other local offices in sugar beet areas have attempted youth recruitment with varying degrees of success. Regardless of the fate of Public Law 78, youth recruitment for sugar beet field work is now an established seasonal program of the Wyoming State Employment Service.

November Nonfarm Placements Top Year Ago

Some 508,100 nonfarm job placements were made in November by the local offices of the public Employment Service, a 3.1 percent gain from the year before. This is the first month since October 1963 that the year-ago level has been exceeded. Also, after adjustment for the number of workdays, placements declined less than usual between October and November—4.4 percent, compared with an expected 10.3 percent drop. At their highest November level on record, nonfarm job openings, at 649,600, showed a higher over-the-year gain than placements—6.7 percent. The 55 major metropolitan areas accounted for about half of the November placements in the Nation and showed a slightly higher over-the-year gain than nationally.

Youth placements, totaling 119,700 in November, declined about seasonally from October but were 8.7 percent higher than November 1963. Among young men, the over-the-year increase was even sharper—12 percent, or four times the overall placement gain from the year earlier.

Declines in placements between October and November were smaller than usual in most occupational and industry divisions. Over-the-year gains were posted in nearly all occupational groups, the 9.6 percent in the professional category being the largest with a November total of 21,000. Over-the-year gains were also posted in three major industry divisions, manufacturing, public utilities, and government. Placements in government, at 29,900, more than doubled, chiefly because of the hiring of temporary election workers. The 103,600 November placements in manufacturing reflected a 4 percent increase from the same month in 1963, with a durable goods sector, representing about half of the manufacturing total, advancing 6.7 percent.

Counseling and Testing Rise

In November 1964, some 109,500 individuals were counseled, up 2.6 percent from the previous month and 5 percent from the year earlier. Counseling of applicants for training under the MDTA program increased two and a half times over the year and accounted for nearly 12 percent of all counseling in November. Among individuals counseled, youths numbered some 70,300, or nearly two-thirds of the total—a 9.6 percent rise from the preceding month and 5.3 percent more than in November 1963. About one out of every eight new applicants was counseled during the month. Among youth, however, the ratio was one in four, reflecting the special job needs of this group.

Job tests were given to 207,200 individuals in November, down 8.3 percent from the preceding month but 3.3 percent higher than in the same month of 1963. With the tapering off of the cooperative high school program, a decline is usual between October and November. The over-the-year gain may be attributed to increased MDTA activity and to a difference in timing in some States

(*Continued on page 37*)

Nonfarm Placements in the United States* and in 55 Largest Metropolitan Areas, by Occupation and Industry, November 1964

Occupation and industry	Placements				Percent distribution	
	Total United States	Percent change from year ago	Total 55 areas	Percent change from year ago	Total United States	55 areas
Total [1]	508,100	+3.1	257,400	+3.5	100.0	100.0
Occupation:						
Prof. and managerial	21,000	+9.6	16,200	+13.3	4.1	6.3
Clerical and sales	93,900	+7.9	52,000	+14.5	18.5	20.2
Service	163,100	+6.1	91,000	+6.0	32.1	35.4
Skilled	24,700	−8.1	11,900	−5.8	4.9	4.6
Semiskilled	64,600	+0.5	28,900	+1.0	12.7	11.2
Unskilled and other	140,900	−0.7	57,400	−7.2	27.7	22.3
Industry:						
Construction	35,300	−0.3	11,000	−4.3	7.0	4.3
Manufacturing	103,600	+4.0	47,200	+5.5	20.4	18.3
Durable goods	50,500	+6.7	24,700	+2.6	9.9	9.6
Nondurable goods	53,100	+1.5	22,500	+8.9	10.5	8.7
Public utilities	18,000	+2.6	7,400	+4.4	3.5	2.9
Trade	128,400	−1.6	65,100	+0.3	25.3	25.3
Services	181,600	−1.6	103,500	−5.5	35.7	40.2
Nonhousehold	77,600	−5.6	44,800	−11.8	15.3	17.4
Household	104,000	+1.7	58,700	−0.1	20.5	22.8
Government	29,900	+107.4	18,600	+191.6	5.9	7.2
Other	11,400	+4.8	4,600	+2.9	2.2	1.8

[1] Items may not add to total due to rounding.
* Includes Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands.

Source: U.S. Employment Service, based on data from affiliated State Employment Services.

Migrant Crews in Eastern Maryland

ALBERT L. SHOSTACK

EACH year, the Employment Service guides many thousands of migratory farmworkers to out-of-area seasonal jobs through the distinctive institution of the crew system.

Most migratory farmworkers travel as members of crews directed by crew leaders. The crew leaders perform essential functions—arranging for jobs, screening and recruiting the individual workers, and transporting the workers to and from the job. They usually arrange for housing in the work area, train and supervise their work force, and handle the payment of wages. They often provide financial and other assistance to their followers and generally undertake the task of maintaining order and a good social climate in the crew. The crew system thus forms a social and economic framework that makes the large-scale movement of seasonal migrants feasible and reasonably adequate for meeting short-term farm labor needs.

Both the Employment Service and the farm operators have a vital interest in identifying and recruiting the most reliable and effective crews—those most likely to meet advance job commitments, to deal fairly with employers and individual members, and to prevent creation of problems for the community. Both are concerned with selecting crews whose leaders are trustworthy and competent, and who show a sense of responsibility for the welfare of their followers. Careful selection of migratory crews can go a long way toward improving the conditions and earnings of migrant workers and improving the quality of the farm labor supply.

What kinds of crews are likely to do the best job? Can we develop ways of identifying the most stable and effective crews? Are there specific types of migratory crews and crew leaders? This article reports some results

Dr. Shostack is a Manpower Development Specialist, OMAT, in the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor.

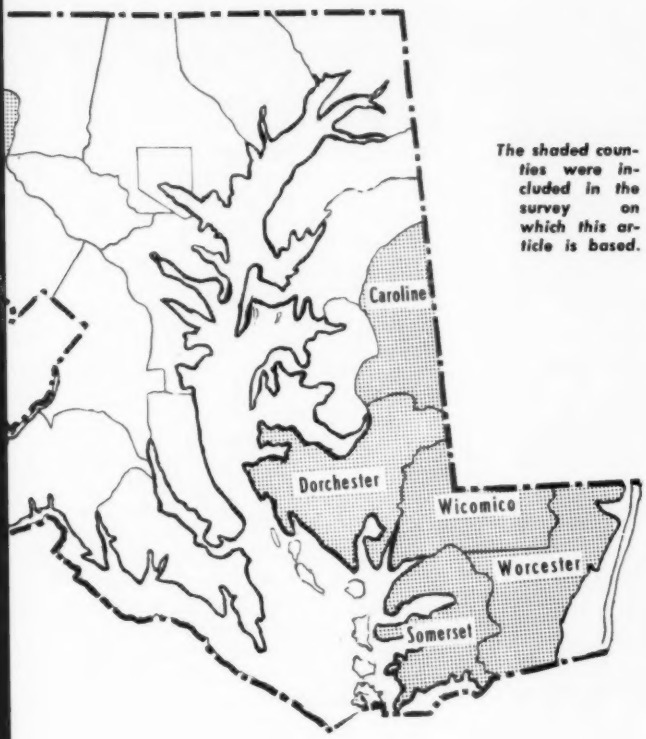
During July 1963, the writer interviev crews in eastern Maryland as part of graduate study at the American Univ crews were in Somerset and Dorches primarily in the bean, cucumber, toma were part of the East Coast migratory s ers who winter in Florida and work thei the spring and summer months. The about 900 actually picked crops. The one-fourth of all migrants in the area.

Interviews with crew leaders were of the Migrant Ministry of the Mary health department officials. The writ Migrant Ministry; Employment Servi police officials; a county agricultural ag tion furnished by these "informed pers ments and put the crew leader data into

Although crews were not selected those contacted are sufficiently represen purposes of a pilot, exploratory study. however, refused to be interviewed; so improper practices.

The heads of the 27 crews that did and composition of their crews; the ch transportation, organization, supervisio arrangements; interpersonal relationsh tudes. This information was reviewed survey—What types of migratory crews

Migrant workers picked beans in eastern Maryland.



The shaded counties were included in the survey on which this article is based.

ed the leaders of 27 migrant farm labor
survey conducted in connection with
rsity, Washington, D.C. Most of the
r Counties, where they are employed
o, and sweet corn harvests. The crews
ream, consisting mainly of Negro work-
way along the Eastern Seaboard during
included 1,205 individuals, of whom
urveyed groups probably accounted for

rranged largely through the assistance
nd Council of Churches and by local
also interviewed staff members of the
personnel; local health, welfare, and
nt; and farm operators. The informa-
ns" helped to verify crew leader state-
erspective.
r the survey by probability sampling,
tative of all eastern Maryland crews for
A number of contacted crew leaders,
ne of these may have been engaged in

respond were questioned about the size
aracteristics of the leader; recruitment,
, and operation of the crew; financial
s; and a variety of opinions and atti-
or an answer to the basic question of the
are there, and how do they differ?

of a pilot survey of 27 crew leaders in Maryland that explored answers to these questions.

This study, while only exploratory, indicates the possibility that specific kinds of crews and crew leaders can be identified by differences in composition, organization, and practices. Such information may be useful in improving the recruitment and operation of migrant groups, and in the administration of laws and regulations affecting migrant labor.

The survey results also suggest the possibility of establishing programs to teach crew leaders how to supervise a crew fairly and effectively, to meet their responsibilities under State and Federal laws, to keep proper operating records, and other skills needed for the competent and trustworthy guidance of a migrant group.

Two Types of Crews Indicated

The data suggested the delineation of two specific types of crews. Of the 27 crews, 16 could be identified as "family-oriented." The remaining 11 might be described as "impersonal" crews. These two main types of crews differed in a number of important characteristics, although there were some similarities among all crews, reflecting their adjustment to basic migrant farm labor conditions.

Family-oriented crews were somewhat smaller, on the average, ranging in size from 15 to 65 members, while impersonal crews had from 20 to 78 members. Each type included both large and small crews, however, and some crews expected to add more members later in the season.

As might be expected, family-oriented crews included the highest proportion of relatives of the crew leader (20 percent or more), of people traveling in family units (60 percent or more), and of children. Almost all crews contained both male and female "singles."

All of the migrant workers in the crews were Negro, except for a few Puerto Ricans and one family of Mexican descent.

Members of a migratory crew gather at the recreation hall of a camp in Somerset County.

Various types of housing were supplied in the migrant worker camps.

Characteristics of Crew Leaders

All of the interviewed leaders were Negroes. Four were women. The average age of the leaders was about 50. Although their educational attainment was low—one-third had not gone beyond the third grade and only six had some high school education—they gave the impression of high intelligence and ability.

There were significant differences between the two types of leaders. Family oriented leaders tended to be older. They had been leading crews for a much longer period of time; most reported 10 or more years. The typical family-oriented leader had moved up from the ranks of the migrants, while many impersonal crew leaders had never been migratory workers or even worked on a farm before heading a crew. During the winter months in Florida, most of the leaders are self-employed in recruiting and transporting workers to harvest jobs on a day-haul basis, but a significant proportion of family-oriented leaders work for wages as ordinary farmhands or foremen.

Some crew leaders originally had struck out on their own by "free-wheeling" a crew to the Northern States, arranging jobs through the Florida State Employment Service, or leading a dissident group away from an existing crew. For such leaders, the key to entering the business was possession of a truck or bus; the key to continuing was the establishment of permanent relationships with one or more employers. The leaders reported that many individuals who try to enter the business in this way do not succeed in making a permanent employer contact and, therefore, fall back into the migratory worker ranks.

A second group of leaders entered the business when they were requested by a grower to recruit a group of workers. In such cases, the grower selected a trustworthy migrant or local worker to recruit a labor supply. Often, he advanced funds to the new leader to help pay transportation and recruitment expenses.

The third method of becoming a crew leader consisted of taking over

an existing crew upon the death, retirement, or disability of the original leader. For example, three of the women crew leaders had taken over crews formerly led by their husbands.

Recruitment of Crew Members

All crew leaders reported great informality in the recruitment of workers. In the home base area, crews were recruited from among family members, acquaintances, individuals who worked with the leaders on a day-haul basis, and workers who had accompanied the crew during the previous year. Leaders seeking workers relied on word of mouth—the "grapevine"—to bring in applicants. The reputation of the crew leader for honesty and for providing relatively continuous employment was considered the most important asset in recruiting workers. Older crew leaders were proud of the reputation they had built in their home town.

Major differences emerged between the family-oriented and the impersonal crews. The typical family-oriented crew was recruited in the home base area and included a substantial proportion of relatives or acquaintances of the crew leader. In contrast, the typical impersonal crew had to recruit more workers after leaving the home base. Such crews picked up a substantial proportion of "strangers" from chance encounters on the way to Maryland or from workers drifting into camp. In a few cases, buses were sent to Baltimore slum areas for street-corner recruiting. At least a quarter of the members of most impersonal crews were "strangers." A couple of crews had an almost complete turnover of personnel after leaving home base.

Family-oriented crews had the highest proportion of "repeaters"—workers who were with the crew in the previous year.

Workers tended to stick with family-oriented crews during the entire season, leaving only for compelling personal reasons or because they were ejected by the leader. In the typical impersonal crew, on the other hand, desertions were relatively common and were attributed to such economic reasons as to obtain higher wages or more continuous employment.

Arranging for Jobs

For all the crews, the development of long-term relationships with particular farm operators and the arrangement of advance job commitments were keys to successful adaptation. All of the surveyed crews had jobs lined up before coming to Maryland, and all but five had arranged the jobs with last year's employers. Five crews had been referred to their current jobs by the Employment Service, and 17 others had contacted the Florida agency to confirm their job commitments and to meet the requirements of the State's emigrant agent law.

Most crews planned to work in other States also during the season. The typical small family-oriented crew, however, was able to remain in eastern Maryland all season by piecing together jobs with a number of smaller employers.

Family-oriented crews generally had longer term relations with their employers than impersonal crews; most had worked on the same farm for at least 4 years, some for 10 or more years. This continuity of employment lends order and predictability to the migratory movement.

Paying the Crew

In almost all cases, the farm operator paid the crew leader on a piece-rate basis for the output of the crew. The piece rate for each crop was virtually uniform throughout the survey area. The crew leader kept a part of the piece rate for himself—typically several cents per basket—and paid the remainder to his workers. From his shares, the leader paid the cost of transporting the workers between camp and field, the wages of supervisory personnel, the wages of loaders and truck drivers and his share of the social security tax. If he provided trucks to haul the vegetables to packing plants, he received an additional amount per basket.

In some instances, the system of payment varied, particularly for family-oriented crew leaders who had long-standing, close relationships with their employers. Several such leaders were paid on an hourly basis, but this was augmented by year-end bonuses. Several farm operators gave or loaned funds to the leader for the transportation of the crew from Florida. Many advanced funds to the leader to tide the workers over slack work periods. Variations in the payment of crews could not be investigated intensively in this pilot survey, but deserve further study.

Crew Leaders Pay Workers

All workers in the crew were paid on a piece-rate basis. With one or two notable exceptions, workers received their pay directly from the crew leader. The worker's share of the total piece rate had been agreed to by most growers in the area and, therefore, was relatively uniform for any crop.

Uniformity of wage rates in the area serves several useful functions. First, workers can be informed of the rate before leaving their home base, thus reducing the likelihood of their being misled. Second, uniformity reduces "floating" from crew to crew and prevents mass desertion. Third, their knowledge of area wage rates gives the workers some measure of control over the wage-setting practices of the crew leader. The high turnover of personnel noted in some impersonal crews reflected, in part, efforts of the leaders to pay lower wage rates on some occasions.

Less easy to justify was the relative

Cucumbers were among the crops picked by the migratory workers.

Young persons recruited by ministers volunteered their services to broaden the horizons of the children of migrant families at a camp in Somerset County.

stability of the piece rate from year to year, despite the increased cost of operating a crew and increases in the cost of living.

Financial Practices Differ

Although both types of crews had to conform to the prevailing piece-rate system, they showed significant differences with respect to other financial practices, such as frequency of wage payments, rental charges, sale of supplies, loans, and deductions from earnings.

Most crew leaders paid their workers weekly, but some family-oriented crews paid their workers daily or paid cash for each individual basket delivered to the checker. This reduced record-keeping chores and cut down potential disputes between leaders and workers.

Members of the typical family-oriented crew usually paid no rent for their housing. If rent was required, the workers paid the rent in cash directly to the camp management. Impersonal crews usually paid rent, and their leaders deducted the rent payments from the weekly earnings of the workers.

The typical family-oriented crew leader displayed great pride about the fact that he sold nothing to his workers. At most, a small number sold sandwiches or minor grocery items. Their prevailing opinion was that the sale of commodities to the workers is often associated with unethical practices. In contrast, most impersonal leaders sold goods to their followers; a substantial proportion provided complete board to the "singles" in their crew. Some engaged in the illegal sale of alcoholic beverages. The impersonal leaders generally deducted their sales from the workers' earnings, whereas the few family-oriented leaders who sold things were paid in cash.

Almost all crews transported their members to and from Florida free of charge. The return trip, however, was provided only for workers who stayed with the crew until the end of the season, thus constituting a bonus for "sticking with" the crew.

All of the crew leaders advanced funds to help their workers during periods when no work was available, between jobs, and when bad weather kept them in the camp. Such advances were an essential business practice to prevent desertion to other crews even though many of the respondents complained that dissatisfied workers often disappear from the crew without repaying debts.

The typical family-oriented crew leader advanced funds for purposes other than subsistence, such as medical bills, payments on cars and homes, an emergency trip to Florida, and support for ill workers. Moreover, the family-oriented leader would not demand repayment during periods of very low earnings. In contrast, there were scattered indications of impersonal crew leaders making deductions in excess of actual loans and ejecting crew members too ill to work.

The sale of food and supplies, deductions from wages, imposition of various charges, and the prevalence of money-lending raise substantial difficulties for the administration of minimum wage, crew leader registration, and other laws. These are compounded by the illiteracy of the workers and their dependence on the leader for meeting basic needs and providing a measure of security.

Internal Organization of Crews

Impersonal crews operated with greater formality than family-oriented crews and had more internal division of labor. Their leaders delegated authority to subordinate supervisors more readily. More of the members were assigned on a full-time basis to such specialized nonpicker jobs as field foreman, checker, record-keeper, sandwich and soda seller, driver, loader, cook, packer, grader, and camp caretaker. Leaders of family-oriented crews tended to do their own supervision; if they needed supervisory help, they assigned the job to relatives. There was less specialization in their crews; e.g., the truck drivers might pick crops or load vehicles between deliveries.

Impersonal crew leaders tended to keep more elaborate written records of earnings and output of the workers, outstanding loans, and business expenses. The records were usually kept by the leader or a relative, but two of the larger impersonal crews had full-time bookkeepers. At the other extreme, three small family-oriented crews had no written records at all; the grower paid the workers directly or workers were paid with tickets which were redeemed by the crew leader each week. Many of the crew leaders were proud of their unusually retentive memories, which

helped them to overcome their lack of education in keeping tabs on output and earnings.

None of the crews issued written rules. Family-oriented leaders tended to pass down instructions informally; impersonal leaders relied more on formal group announcements. The piece-rate method of payment provided a built-in incentive that made rigid work and attendance rules unnecessary.

Social Relationships

The leaders of family-oriented crews tended to feel a paternalistic obligation to look after the welfare of their followers, extending not only to financial but also to personal problems. Having been migratory farmworkers themselves, they did not consider migrants as inferior people. They expressed the opinion that their workers engaged in migratory labor only because they had no other job possibilities that would provide as much income. They believed that most crew members worked hard and were reasonably conscientious. In contrast, the typical impersonal leader complained that many workers do not work hard or try to improve their lot but expect the crew leader to take care of them when they are in trouble. These leaders refer to some workers as "wineheads" who "raise sand" and do not deserve their friendship or sympathy.

Such attitudes were reflected in social relationships between leaders and followers. Although almost all leaders lived close to the quarters of the workers, the heads of impersonal crews did not know the names of many of their followers. Crew members addressed the family-oriented leader informally by his first name or nickname, but called impersonal leaders "Mr. _____" or some deferential title such as "bossman." The immediate family of the family-oriented leader usually picked crops with the crew, while family members of impersonal leaders held higher status jobs such as truck driver, checker, and food seller. Family-oriented leaders were the least likely to have an automobile in the area, or to dress more formally than their followers.

The family-oriented crews appeared to have the more stable and cohesive social organization. Not only did they report fewer desertions, but also fewer instances of fighting, stealing, bickering, and trouble with the police. When problems did arise, leaders of the two types of groups handled them in characteristically different ways. Family-oriented leaders stepped in to halt fights, tried to track down thefts, and soothed interpersonal friction. Impersonal leaders, however, were more likely to call the police or eject offenders.

Crew Size

Obviously, the size of a crew has a major impact on its operations and on relationships between members and crew leaders. For example, large crews of both types reported that they were getting larger, while the smaller crews were either stable or shrinking. The leaders of small crews tended to be doubtful that they would continue in the business much longer. Smaller crews seemed to have less continuity of employment.

The size factor, however, does not explain most differences between family-oriented and impersonal crews. Although the family-oriented crews tended to be smaller, some small crews were very clearly of the impersonal type.

The survey data suggested some reasons why these relatively small crews fell into the impersonal category. Their leaders tended to be much younger than average and better educated. Most had not come up through the ranks of migratory workers, and were relatively new in the business. Because they had not yet had time to build a reputation among workers in the home base, these young, new leaders reported the most trouble in recruiting enough workers. They did not work with their crew members in the winter months. They had the fewest "repeaters" in their crews. They had to add workers while en route to, and working in, Maryland.

The young, new impersonal leaders had not yet established solid relationships with employers. Their crews were the only ones that did not have jobs lined up for the remainder of the season. Because they were unable to provide continuous employment, they experienced a high desertion rate. A willingness to engage in exploitative practices contributed to this problem in some instances. The special problems of crews headed by young, new leaders help to explain many observations of the survey.

Suggestion for Followup

Consideration should be given to conducting more intensive studies along similar lines to develop definite criteria and standards for identifying and developing the most effective and reliable crews. It would be useful to test the findings of the present study in the midcontinent and West Coast migratory streams, where conditions are different from the East Coast pattern. If resources permit, interviews with crew members should supplement data furnished by the crew leaders.

LOCAL OFFICE ACTIVITIES

(Continued from page 31)

of peaks in the cooperative high school program.

1964 Farm Placements Continue Downtrend

In November, farm placements totaled 426,800, or 24.9 percent more than in November 1963. Two States—Mississippi and Tennessee with 103,200 and 61,300 placements—accounted for nearly all of the over-the-year gain, as weather conditions prolonged the cotton harvest.

During calendar year 1964, an estimated 6.4 million farm placements were made, about 11 percent fewer than in the previous year and the fifth consecutive year of decline. Chiefly responsible for this downtrend is continued cotton harvest mechanization in the South, as well as increased chemical and mechanical cultivation. In addition, labor saving devices continued to make inroads on seasonal jobs in vegetable fields and fruit orchards.

A Unified Approach to Migrant Services

MARGARET GARRITY

Church groups unite to help migrant farmworkers and, through organization and planning and the cooperation of public and private agencies, are achieving new benefits for workers.

In the summer of 1963 in Chicago, Ill., a Catholic priest, a Presbyterian minister, and two representatives of the U.S. Department of Labor sat down for an informal discussion on what was then a vague idea: A unified approach to services to migrant agricultural workers.

The priest represented the Bishops' Committee for Migratory Workers. The minister represented the Division of Home Missions of the National Council of the Churches of Christ in the USA. The civil servants were working on their own time. One was employed by the Labor Standards Bureau, charged with improving the working and living conditions of migrants. The other was employed by the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, responsible for enforcing the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. All four were weary from years of watching parallel but ineffective efforts of church and government to solve the problems of the domestic agricultural migrants.

That initial meeting bore fruit in the form of the Mid-West Conference on the Migrant Workers sponsored by the two church groups in Chicago in July 1963, which brought together church leaders from the Midwestern States. Government representatives attended to explain Federal and State resources which would be available for specific projects and to furnish information in the areas of health, housing, the Annual Worker Plan, day care, summer schools, and working conditions.

Out of the conference came the Plymouth, Ind., plan, based on a resolution by the church people of Indiana that interchurch organization and planning must be utilized to meet migrant problems. A council was organized with voting membership divided equally between the two faiths. Invitations to participate as nonvoting members were extended to all interested parties, including migrant workers, their employers, representatives of agencies devoted to employment, health, education, and welfare of migrants, and others.

Formation of the council is now history. Migrant agricultural workers in Indiana today benefit from the results. The list of accomplishments includes a secular summer school, a licensed day-care center (the only licensed day-care center in the State); a public health nurse to service the school, the center, and the camps; and dental examination for children with referral to local dentists who reduced their fees by 50 percent.

This cooperative effort resulted in broader and more effective services than would have been possible by either religious group working alone. Now, national church organizations and church groups in other States are studying the Plymouth plan, and indications are that it will spread.

Plymouth, Ind. hopes to expand its own program to meet new needs. Formal discussions are now taking place on extension into new areas of service, such as free legal aid, credit, more and better health services, and adult training. Interfaith cooperation is also being extended toward long-range social goals.

The vague idea discussed in Chicago in 1963 is a reality in 1965 because of close cooperation between church groups and among representatives of private and public agencies seeking the same goal.

Margaret Garrity is a Regional Consultant, Bureau of Labor Standards, U.S. Department of Labor, Chicago, Ill.

USES MAILBAG

Reaching the Disadvantaged

The success of the war against poverty will be related to success in bringing both existing and new services to the people who are in need of these services.

Traditionally, case finding has depended on the recipient contacting the service provider as a result of information received from the mass media, by word of mouth from a previous service recipient, or by referral from public or voluntary agencies, and private individuals. In order to reach the disadvantaged Negro youth in the South, a different approach is necessary.

An apparently popular position with reference to case finding for the MDTA programs has been to turn to the Negro leadership, with particular attention to the civil rights leaders, and to expect these men to recruit "their people" for these programs. This method of case finding is not successful because it is based on a false premise. Many Negroes make up an informed, well organized class but the unskilled, uneducated working class, by contrast, is unorganized. There is no more reason to expect a Negro busi-

The editor welcomes letters from readers for this department. Comments on published articles, requests for additional information, inquiries about the program or operations of the Employment Service and evaluation of its accomplishments, or suggestions for future articles might be appropriate subjects. We hope that there will be a steady stream of letters to the editor.

nessman or professional person to be responsible for or obligated to the disadvantaged Negro than his white equivalent is responsible for or obligated to the disadvantaged of his race. The civil rights movement in the South is a middle class movement and there are few, if any, benefits to the disadvantaged Negro at this point from either Supreme Court decisions or the Civil Rights Act. When you are involved with the uneducated, unskilled class of the Negro community, you find that neither formal nor informal Negro leaders exist.

How do you reach the disadvantaged Negro high school dropout? If his family is impoverished, there is no newspaper. If they attend church, it is a "Corn Crib" church where the preacher is a layman with a "calling" but not a power figure. This is not the middle class church that houses the community leaders. The disadvantaged youth is isolated as far as communication is concerned. Even if the family has radio or television, the world they see in this medium is one of fantasy compared with the real world they exist in. If you attempt to reach this person with public service advertisements, you will have negligible success because he will not identify himself as the person you are appealing to. Even if he does make the connection, he is not going to "buy the story" that the white man wants to help him.

The only way to achieve successful case finding for the disadvantaged Negro youth is through a person-to-person, direct contact method of operation. A worker will have to go to his "hang outs" and sell him the program. Without doubt, the best salesman to employ to do this case finding is a disadvantaged Negro youth. There are very few people who are sufficiently adept at cross-class communication who would be able to find, establish rapport, and motivate into the programs all the people who need to be reached to win this war against poverty. Although using disadvantaged Negro youth to do recruiting may seem novel, there have been successful precedents recently in Tampa, Fla., in improving community immunization programs under the Public Health Department through this type of approach.

A disadvantaged Negro youth can be employed and trained to do the recruiting in his neghborhood. Once he has "bought" the program, he will be able to "sell" the program without having to overcome the class and racial communication problems. These same Negro workers, following case finding in their own neighborhoods, can be used to extend the program into other communities.

C. NORMAN LARKIN
Rehabilitation Counselor
Florida Council for the Blind

Despite the Wheelchair

Injured in a hunting accident at the age of 12, Don W. lost the use of his legs and has been confined to a wheelchair ever since. He was able to complete the ninth grade through home study, and continued home study in various fields that might possibly lead to employment. It soon became apparent that this was not adequate and that he would need professional assistance in order to become employable.

Don visited the Miami office of the Florida Division of Vocational Rehabilitiation; it was here that a program was developed for him to be trained in radio and television repair. As he still could not obtain a job, Vocational Rehabilitation set up additional training in small electrical appliance repair through the Dade County Sheltered Workshop. Meanwhile, VR investigated the possibilities of on-the-job training for him in private industry. Unfortunately, the training was interrupted when he was required to enter the hospital for further treatment. Upon his release, he returned to the Sheltered Workshop.

Since the training program at the Sheltered Workshop was of a temporary nature, VR referred Don to the Miami Industrial Office of the Florida State Employment Service. Through job development, Don was placed with a vending machine manufacturing company in an on-the-job training program at $1.40 an hour. His duties were to test the completed assembled parts for proper operation. Don worked for this vending company for 4 years. This seemed to be the solution to his employment problem, but in July 1963 the company left the Miami area and Don was again looking for employment. Returning to the Florida State Employment Service for assistance, Don was placed in a local electronics firm through job development. He started work as an assembler at $1.35 an hour. He is now making $1.60 an hour and doing very well.

Programed Training For New DOT

JACK NEWMAN

The numbered sections on this page, called "frames," are examples of programed instruction. In the upper portion of each frame, at least one blank replaces a missing word. Read each frame, thinking of what the missing word(s) should be. Verify your response by reading the lower section of the frame in which the correct missing word or words are underlined. Do not read the lower section before deciding on the correct response.

You have just completed some random frames covering a small portion of the programed training manual being developed for introducing the revised DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES. Although not yet in final form, it illustrates the technique that will be used to provide training for the next edition of the Dictionary.

What Programed Instruction Is

Programed instruction is a recent development in the field of education. As applied here, it consists of a series of frames providing instruction in carefully constructed and sequenced steps. Each frame contains only one bit of new information, is written in readily understandable language, and has demonstrated, through repeated field tryouts, that it teaches what it is supposed to teach. The frames follow in a logical order best suited to the subject matter; new material is not introduced until the trainee has mastered the previous material. Theoretically, the ideal tutor would function in this manner.

The concept behind programed instruction is that students learn better by actively participating in the learning process than by merely passively receiving information. Properly sequenced frames require the trainee to respond to each new bit of information and to participate actively in the learning process. He thereby learns to associate correct responses with their proper stimuli; by responding correctly, he confirms that learning has taken place.

Associated with active response is the concept of feedback, or confirmation, of the adequacy of a response. If the student makes errors, they are corrected before he proceeds. Thus, the student verifies that he associates correct answers with specific stimuli, not at some later time, but immediately. Thereby, incorrect responses do not become fixed in the trainee's mind.

Programed materials can be presented to trainees in two general ways. One method uses a "teaching machine," which can be a simple and inexpensive mechanical device exposing frames in sequence through a window, or a computer-controlled electronic device costing thousands of dollars. For reasonably well-motivated adults, the machine seems to offer no learning advantage over the programed textbook or manual described below.

The second technique presents programed material in a textbook or manual. This method will be adapt-

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71. A job is sometimes called by different titles in different establishments or parts of the country. Thus, volume I of the DOT lists about 35,000 titles but contains only about 22,000 definitions. In other words, several job _____ may refer to the same job _____.

For example, the titles BRIDGEMAN and BRIDGETENDER are both used in different geographical areas when referring to the job covered by the DOT definition for the title BRIDGE OPERATOR.

72. When a job is known by several titles, the job title used in the DOT to identify a specific set of duties is the one most commonly encountered. Selection of the title to be used, therefore, is based on _____ usage.

If DOT titles are to be used as standards, the one selected for use in Employment Service operations should be based on common usage.

75. The job title is the key to using volume I. The only way you can get information about a job in volume I is to look up _____ _____.

Usually when you use volume I you have a particular job title in mind.

79. Many titles are derived from some aspect of the job itself. For example, titles such as BANK CASHIER, LIGHTHOUSE KEEPER, and PACKING ROOM FOREMAN each specify the _____ where the job is performed.

The title PORT ENGINEER also indicates the place (location) where the work is performed.

82. If the job you are trying to locate involves the use of a certain machine, it is possible that the title for the job will include the name of the _____.

A BANBURY-MIXER OPERATOR makes use of a mixing machine known as a Banbury mixer.

ed to the DOT training manual being developed. Here, the student reads the material, turning pages to expose successive frames and to verify his responses. This is a somewhat more flexible method, because it need not conform to rigid machine requirements and can be varied in format to meet the special needs of different kinds of subject matter.

Studies comparing teaching machines and programed texts as instructional devices have shown that learning is affected primarily by the quality of the programed instruction rather than by its manner of presentation. However, the machine has an advantage over a programed text in that it prevents a student from seeing frames out of sequence or from looking at answers before constructing his own responses. The advantage is only psychological, however. Most experimental evidence indicates that learning apparently takes place at the same level regardless of whether the student looks at answers before responding.

The DOT training manual will use programed text rather than the teaching machine because: (1) the format is more flexible; (2) the cost is lower; and (3) more texts can be in use simultaneously.

The basic types of programs—the linear and the intrinsic—both agree on the concepts of proper sequencing, active response, and feedback or confirmation despite basic physical and theoretical differences. The material used earlier in this article illustrates a linear program, because the frames follow one another in sequence and require the trainee to read through each frame. Since the trainee develops rather than selects, an answer from among several possibilities, his responses are constructed.

Intrinsic programing presents a mass of material, possibly several paragraphs, followed by a single multiple-choice question. Here, the student must recognize rather than construct the correct answer. Unique to this type of program is its branching procedure. Students who select the wrong response are routed for clarification to additional frames which are not ordinarily seen by those who make the right response. While branching is also possible with a linear program, its emphasis on insuring that students make no or very few errors makes branching rarely necessary.

Both methods seem to teach equally well. The way the student is required to respond and the size of the steps involved are not as crucial as assuring that he: (*a*) is required to respond; (*b*) receives immediate feedback for each response; (*c*) is led to mastery of the subject in a logical, controlled manner; (*d*) can proceed at a pace best suited to his individual capabilities; and (*e*) works with a training manual that has been tried out and revised until the material achieves a certain level of teaching efficiency.

Pilot Test Leads to Programed Instruction

Results of a pilot test led to the decision to use the linear, constructed-response type of program in the DOT training manual. In the test, half of a group of 60 persons were trained in the use of a manual covering physical demands analysis through the traditional lecture and demonstration method. The other half, trained by means of the programed text, achieved results that were so superior that this method of instruction was selected. The linear, constructed-response method will be flexible enough to permit use of the technique which appears most suitable to the specific topic or subtopic being taught.

Several practical benefits significant to the training needs of the Employment Service are expected from the use of programed instruction:

Uniform Training.—All trainees will be taught the same material in the same way. Variations in depth or quality of training resulting from traditional methods of instructions will be minimized. This is particularly important for training in the use of the DOT, since the Dictionary should be applied in a standardized manner to various operating situations.

High Quality of Training.—Development of a program requires detailed analyses of skills and knowledges to be taught, training needs, and the characteristics of the trainees. Both training and subject matter specialists then prepare and revise every frame from evidence obtained in field tryouts. Training materials are thus refined until an efficient training document emerges.

Self-Paced Training.—Programed instruction does not require the student to conform to the pace of the group. He works through the text, at a rate best suited to his learning ability, and need not miss material because the group is too fast or too slow. Consequently, a higher level of learning is achieved by the entire group.

An instructor is still an integral part of the training process. Because he is freed of many routine training chores, the instructor can devote his time to the more professional aspects of training. These include: Identifying specific areas needing more instruction, assisting individual students who appear to be having special difficulty, improving overall training courses to meet State agency needs more effectively, and enlarging his own area of competence with respect to learning theory, techniques, and procedures.

Lower Training Cost.—Approximately 20,000 persons will require some training in the DOT during the year following its release, almost 50,000 during the first 5 years. Although a programed text is considerably more expensive to develop than a conventional training course, the unit cost decreases as the number of trainees increases. Considering also the cumulative savings of instructors' time in the preparation and presentation of material, and of the trainees who will not need to travel to central training points, programed instruction becomes considerably less costly than a conventional training course.

With developmental work well underway and field tryouts completed, the final text of a programed training manual for the third edition of the DOT will be ready for release with the publication of the revised

(*Continued on page 42*)

Training for Farm Skills

While machines have reduced the number of seasonal jobs in agriculture, they have also increased the complexity of year-round farm jobs, requiring workers with greater skills. Agricultural training projects are lessening shortages of such skilled workers as well as improving the employability of underemployed farmworkers.

Through November 1964, 42 States, Puerto Rico, and American Samoa were participating in agricultural training projects under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Area Redevelopment Act. Approval had been granted for 389 projects, with an enrollment of 14,625. Of these, 157 projects had been completed and 3,435 workers had received training in agricultural skills.

Indicating the need for such training is the high employment rate of graduates of both ARA and MDTA courses in training-related jobs at the end of November. About 85 percent of the persons completing ARA agricultural training courses were working in training-related jobs, compared with 74 percent of all ARA graduates so employed. Of the graduates of MDTA courses in agricultural occupations, 75 percent were employed in jobs related to their training, compared with 63 percent of all employed MDTA graduates.

ARA and MDTA institutional training for agricultural occupations, November 1964	Number of approved—	
	Projects	Trainees
A. Program and fiscal year		
ARA–MDTA cumulative total	389	14,625
ARA:		
1962	14	391
1963	34	905
1964	43	1,666
1965	8	278
MDTA:		
1963	44	1,141
1964	137	6,167
1965	109	4,077
B. Current projects		
Cumulative total	228	9,833
ARA	19	1,330
MDTA	209	8,503
C. Completed projects		
Cumulative total	157	3,435
ARA	73	1,632
MDTA	84	1,803

Source: U.S. Employment Service, based on data from affiliated State Employment Services.

Latest Training Highlights

Under ARA Program
(As of Dec. 1, 1964)

Approved training projects	860
Total trainees approved	38,661
Enrolled in training (estimated)	31,600
Completed training (estimated)	24,500

Employment Status
(November 1961–June 1964)

I. Completed training	21,053
A. Obtained employment	15,892
Training-related	14,321
Nontraining-related	1,571
B. Referred for employment, awaiting referral, and other (including status unknown)	5,161
II. Employment Service placement activity.	
A. Placed by ES	10,332
B. Other	5,560

State Agency Trainee Selection and Referral Activities
(September 1961–November 1964)

*Screening interviews	106,224
Counseling interviews	42,901
General aptitude tests	25,237
Specific aptitude tests	35,864
Proficiency tests	4,159
Referrals to training	33,212

*Cumulative from September 1962.

Under MDTA Institutional Program
(As of Dec. 1, 1964)

Approved institutional training projects	4,711
Total trainees approved	267,187
Enrolled in training (estimated)	161,000
Completed training (estimated)	74,000

Employment Status
(September 1962–June 1964)

I. Completed training	50,552
A. Obtained employment	36,719
Training-related	31,811
Nontraining-related	4,908
B. Referred for employment, awaiting referral, and other (including status unknown)	13,833
II. Employment Service placement activity.	
A. Placed by ES	24,076
B. Other	12,643

State Agency Trainee Selection and Referral Activities
(June 1962–November 1964)

Screening interviews	1,231,991
Counseling interviews	355,932
General aptitude tests	174,666
Specific aptitude tests	178,447
Proficiency tests	24,878
Referrals to training	187,755

Occupational Developments
(*Continued from page 41*)

Dictionary sometime early in 1965. Introduction of programed instruction in the training of local office personnel should have a profound effect on the resolution of many future training problems. The technique is gaining wide acceptance throughout industry, has been adopted enthusiastically by the military and other government agencies, and is being introduced experimentally into many school systems.

Programed instruction is most effective when large numbers of personnel must be trained in tools and techniques that tend to remain relatively stable. Its practical value to the Employment Service should, therefore, prove to be considerable during the years ahead. Programed instruction offers the hope that every student can achieve up to the limit of his capacities. This, after all, is the goal of all education.

A New Dimension in Training . . .

The Multioccupational Approach

Experience in developing and administering institutional training programs under MDTA has led to significant changes in the nature and size of projects. Initially, each MDTA program was set up to train a specified number of individuals in a single occupation. However, this approach did not provide adequate opportunity for many who needed training but required literacy upgrading before they could profit from specific occupational training. Also, training in any one occupation limited selection, since many potential trainees would not necessarily have the required aptitudes for the particular occupation.

To broaden training participation among the unskilled and undereducated, multioccupational programs were established. These provide opportunities to explore various kinds of work and to take needed courses in reading, writing, and arithmetic prior to occupational training.

Multioccupational projects accounted for approximately 45 percent of the trainees in programs approved in calendar 1964. These projects provide intensive counseling and testing to guide trainees to vocational choices suited to their needs and abilities. Many offer preliminary job orientation, job tryouts, and assessment of interests, aptitudes, and abilities as well as basic education. This part of the program has been strengthened markedly by the 1963 amendments to the MDTA, which provide for special instruction in basic literacy skills for undereducated jobless individuals and permit training payments for 20 additional weeks of such instruction.

After completion of the prevocational period, trainees normally are assigned to occupational training in a classroom, on the job, or to a combination of these types of training. This approach is well suited to the needs of school dropouts and is being utilized by the Employment Service and vocational educators in developing programs for disadvantaged youth.

From the start of the MDTA program through December 1964, a total of 174 multioccupational projects for over 98,000 trainees have been approved at a cost of about $160 million. Included in these totals are 150 special youth projects for 47,250 trainees, estimated to cost $72.8 million. During calendar 1964, some 150 multioccupational projects for about 77,500 trainees were approved, including 88 special youth projects for nearly 40,000 trainees.

Special data obtained from State agencies for the period ending October 1964 indicate only a little over one-third of the approximately 69,000 trainees approved for all multioccupational projects as of that date had enrolled in training courses, reflecting the relatively recent establishment of most of the multioccupational projects. Of the 24,800 trainees enrolled through that date, some 3,800 had completed training by the end of September, and more than half of these graduates had obtained employment as of October 23, 1964.

Prevocational services, such as counseling and testing, were provided to over two-thirds of the enrollees, while more than half had instruction in basic literacy skills. However, of the trainees enrolled in projects approved between July 1 and October 23, 1964 (a period reflecting implementation of the MDTA amendments), about 95 percent received prevocational services and about

Characteristics of Trainees in Multioccupational Projects and in All MDTA Institutional Projects (Through June 30, 1964)

	Trainees in multioccupational projects 1/				Trainees in all MDTA institutional projects			
	Total	Percent			Total	Percent		
	Number	Percent	Male	Female	Number	Percent	Male	Female
Enrolled	9,979	100.0	68.2	31.8	84,323	100.0	60.5	39.5
Family status	9,938 2/	100.0	100.0	100.0	84,091	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	5,145	51.8	59.2	35.9	47,962	57.0	70.5	36.3
Other	4,793	48.2	40.8	64.1	36,129	43.0	29.5	63.7
Duration of unemployment	9,308 2/	100.0	100.0	100.0	75,710	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 5 weeks	2,098	22.5	22.8	22.8	20,137	26.6	29.6	22.2
5-14 weeks	1,727	18.6	21.2	13.7	19,127	25.3	29.8	18.5
15-26 weeks	1,348	14.5	15.7	12.3	11,797	15.6	17.0	13.5
27-52 weeks	1,322	14.2	15.0	13.1	9,341	12.3	11.8	13.1
Over 52 weeks	2,713	29.1	25.3	38.1	15,308	20.2	11.8	32.7
Age - Total	9,979	100.0	100.0	100.0	84,323	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	1,465	14.7	14.0	16.2	7,066	8.4	7.4	9.8
19-21 years	3,415	34.2	33.1	36.5	18,592	22.0	22.8	20.8
22-34 years	2,705	27.1	28.3	24.5	33,390	39.6	43.6	33.5
35-44 years	1,427	14.3	14.6	13.7	16,148	19.2	16.9	22.5
45 years & over	967	9.7	10.0	9.1	9,127	10.8	9.2	13.4
Education	9,952 2/	100.0	100.0	100.0	84,021	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	1,687	17.0	18.8	12.9	3,371	4.0	5.2	2.1
8th grade	1,428	14.3	16.9	8.9	6,548	7.8	9.7	4.8
9th-11th grade	3,843	38.6	39.4	36.9	26,680	31.7	34.2	27.8
12th grade	2,810	28.2	23.2	39.0	40,634	48.2	43.8	55.3
Over 12th grade	184	1.9	1.7	2.3	6,968	8.3	7.1	10.0
Race	9,449 2/	100.0	100.0	100.0	79,511	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	5,457	57.8	64.1	44.0	58,402	73.5	77.1	67.8
Nonwhite	3,992	42.2	35.9	56.0	21,109	26.5	22.9	32.2

1/ Includes 1,499 youth trainees in adult multioccupation projects and 217 adult trainees in youth multioccupation projects.

2/ Excludes trainees for whom specific characteristics data were not available.

Source: U.S. Employment Service, based on data from affiliated State Employment Services.

Characteristics of Youth Trainees in Multioccupational Projects and in All MDTA Institutional Projects
(Through June 30, 1964)

	Youth trainees in multioccupational projects				Youth trainees in all MDTA institutional projects			
	Total		Percent		Total		Percent	
	Number	Percent	Male	Female	Number	Percent	Male	Female
Enrolled	3,381	100.0	64.0	36.0	25,658	100.0	60.3	39.7
Family status	3,345 1/	100.0	100.0	100.0	25,553	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	415	12.4	12.8	11.7	6,210	24.3	31.3	13.7
Other	2,930	87.6	87.2	88.3	19,343	75.7	68.7	86.3
Education	3,368 1/	100.0	100.0	100.0	25,621	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	168	5.0	7.3	2.6	512	2.0	2.7	0.9
8th grade	339	10.1	12.7	5.3	1,290	5.0	6.7	2.5
9th-11th grade	1,697	50.4	55.2	42.0	8,418	32.9	37.8	25.4
12th grade	1,123	33.3	24.8	48.5	13,956	54.5	48.2	64.0
Over 12th grade	41	1.2	1.0	1.6	1,445	5.6	4.6	7.2
Duration of unemployment	3,203 1/	100.0	100.0	100.0	22,772	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 5 weeks	671	20.9	22.9	17.6	7,420	32.6	36.8	26.5
5-14 weeks	598	18.7	21.5	13.6	5,880	25.8	29.6	20.5
15-26 weeks	440	13.7	14.7	12.1	3,307	14.5	14.9	14.0
27-52 weeks	425	13.3	12.6	14.4	2,458	10.8	9.0	13.3
Over 52 weeks	1,069	33.4	28.3	42.3	3,707	16.3	9.6	25.7
Race	3,173 1/	100.0	100.0	100.0	24,062	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	1,225	38.6	44.1	28.6	17,490	72.7	77.6	65.2
Nonwhite	1,948	61.4	55.9	71.4	6,572	27.3	22.4	34.8

1/ Excludes trainees for whom specific characteristics data were not available.

Source: U.S. Employment Service based on data from affiliated State Employment Services

three-fourths were assigned to basic education courses.

Special youth projects have accounted for 28,900 trainees as of October 23, 1964, more than two-fifths of the total approved as of that date. About 11,600 youth trainees had enrolled in multioccupational projects by the end of October. Nearly 2,000 of the enrollees had completed training by September 30, and over 1,000 had obtained employment. Over 90 percent of the enrolled youth received prevocational services and about two-thirds obtained basic education. More than 3,500 youths have enrolled in multioccupational training programs since July 1, 1964. At least 97 percent of these youth trainees received prevocational services and about 73 percent were obtaining basic education.

Adult projects accounted for about 40,000 trainees through October 23, 1964, 58 percent of the approved multioccupational total. One-third of these adult trainees had enrolled through October. Of the enrolled total, about one-seventh had completed training through September 30, and a majority had obtained employment in October. Relatively fewer adults received prevocational services and basic education than special youth trainees.

Data available on characteristics of some 10,000 multioccupational trainees enrolled through mid-1964 reveal some significant differences between this group and the 84,300 trainees enrolled in all MDTA institutional projects.

While relatively more men were enrolled in multioccupational projects than in all training projects combined, a somewhat smaller proportion of the enrollees in multioccupational projects were heads of families or households (52 percent) than in all training projects (57 percent). This reflects primarily the relatively higher concentration of youth in multioccupational projects.

Relatively more long-term unemployed were participating in multioccupational projects than in all MDTA projects. Nearly three-fifths of the trainees in multioccupational projects had been jobless 15 weeks or more prior to training, compared with slightly less than half of all enrollees.

Youths under 22 years of age constituted close to half of the trainees in multioccupational projects, in contrast to about 30 percent of all MDTA trainees. About two out of five multioccupational trainees were 22 to 44 years of age, and about 1 in 10 was 45 years of age or over.

Educationally disadvantaged trainees were participating in multioccupational projects in substantially larger proportions than in all MDTA projects. About 17 percent of the multioccupational trainees had less than an eighth grade education, compared with about 4 percent of all MDTA trainees. In addition, less than a third of the multioccupational trainees had completed high school, while more than half of all MDTA trainees had attained this educational level.

Multioccupational projects have provided relatively greater training opportunities for nonwhites than the MDTA institutional program as a whole. Nonwhites made up 42 percent of multioccupational trainees and 27 percent of all trainees. More than one-third of the men and over half of the women enrolled in multioccupational projects were nonwhite; in all institutional projects, nonwhites accounted for less than one-fourth of the men and about one-third of the women enrollees. Over three-fifths of the youth trainees in multioccupational projects were nonwhite. Of the adult trainees in multioccupational projects, somewhat less than two-fifths were nonwhite.

Contractor Registration Act

(*Continued from page 13*)

foremen under them, there should be a separate course for the higher levels of management. (3) The course must be geared to the level of the people being taught, and only a trained instructor should attempt to conduct it. (4) The recommended class size is 20 to 25, which allows for discussion periods.

This program caught on in Blythe and is expanding throughout the State because the Farm Labor Service and a group of growers saw the need for it—industry, government, and education pulled together to get it started successfully—and it is producing results.

An Appraisal . . .

Occupational Shortages in 1964

NORMAN MEDVIN and CARYL HOLIBER

Heightened concern with manpower shortages is accompanying the Nation's continuing economic expansion. Actually, qualified workers in most of the occupations for which stringencies are currently reported have been in short supply for years. Yet, as the upswing of the current business cycle nears the 4-year mark, old stringencies have been intensified and some new ones are appearing.

Occupational manpower information available within the Federal-State Employment Service network in November 1964 reveals that skilled worker stringencies are on the increase and long-standing professional and semiprofessional worker shortages continue to hamper recruitment in many areas. Furthermore, the extended economic upturn has sharpened stringencies for semiskilled workers and introduced localized shortages of some lesser skilled workers in manufacturing. Stringencies in numerous occupations are evident in more than half of the 150 major metropolitan areas regularly reporting on current labor area conditions. Sharpest increases in hard-to-fill needs have been reported in durable goods manufacturing, while significant stringencies continue unabated in other sectors of the economy.

"Shortage" a Relative Term

Appraisal of occupational shortages requires recognition that the term "shortage" is relative, meaning different things under changing circumstances. Shortages may be large because the work force in the specific occupation is large, e.g., metalworking occupations. Shortages may be critical because lengthy training and experience are essential for competent job performance in the particular occupation, e.g., bacteriologists engaged in medical research. Shortages may exist in some labor areas—while workers with the required occupational qualifications are available in other areas. Since specialized skills are often required for specific job openings, shortages and surpluses within the same general occupation or occupational group may exist side by side. New York, for example, recently reported a shortage of heliarc welders and a surplus of spot welders and welder's helpers.

Shortages may be present because of unfavorable wages and working conditions or stringent hiring specifications with reference to age, sex, and education. Shortages existing on a 40-hour week may disappear when the employed work force meets production goals on a 42-hour schedule. Occupational supply may be adequate but continuing frictional shortages exist, particularly in occupations in which there is a high turnover, such as clerical jobs frequently held by women.

The past year brought a sharp rise in recruitment of practical nurses.

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The shortage of high school and college instructors intensified during 1964.

Another criterion of manpower shortage is the plant or industry's ability to meet production goals. Output goals may be attained by intensive utilization of the industry's labor force through more working hours per week, skill dilution, and reengineering of both jobs and processes. Yet, under different criteria, there could be realistic shortages if the plant or industry has genuine openings for which it is actively seeking workers.

Engineering Openings Require Specific Training

The supply of well qualified jobseekers in engineering, scientific, and technical occupations falls short of employer requirements. Many job openings for chemical, civil, electrical, industrial, and aeronautical engineers, as well as for physicists, mathematicians, draftsmen, and technicians working in support of engineers and scientists, require specific training and experience offered by few jobseekers. Bureau of Labor Statistics projections through 1970 are for a sizable potential shortage of scientists and engineers, at least through the end of the decade. Relative shortages in these occupations tend to change with emphases on new programs and projects or with cyclical swings in the economy.

Regular reports on occupational manpower conditions for engineers, physical scientists, and industrial technicians have indicated that the demand for these workers has relaxed somewhat during the past year. The relatively greater availability of technical manpower has apparently been related to completions, terminations, and shifts in research and development and other Federally financed defense and space projects. One result of this change has been a reduction in hard-to-fill jobs for electronic engineers—the engineering specialty in shortest supply during the missile and space buildup which reached its peak in mid-1962. Similarly, demand for physicists and mathematicians for defense and space programs has diminished. However, as hard-to-fill demand for mechanical engineers in defense-oriented programs lessened, it was largely replaced by requirements of the expanding durable goods economy.

Reports during October 1964 of some new recruitment for Federally financed activities as well as continued gains in the civilian economy suggest that demand for technical manpower may increase in coming months.

Growing Need for Practical Nurses

Shortage of medical and health service workers in the United States is widespread. Occupations for which qualified workers are in short supply pervade all skill levels from the highly trained and specifically ori-

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This U.S. Employment Service appraisal of current occupational shortages is based on information available from its operating programs in November 1964. Current information on occupations for which there are worker shortages is regularly available through the labor area reporting and interarea recruitment programs. Area Labor Reports (ES–219) are prepared monthly and provide information on local labor supply and demand in 150 major metropolitan areas. Inventories of job openings placed in interarea recruitment (a process of matching workers in one area with jobs in other areas) by State Employment Services are prepared biweekly. They indicate the volume, trend, and types of current occupational shortages in local areas. A supplement—Labor Supply and Demand Summary—provides additional information on skill shortages and surpluses within the various States.

Also available was an evaluation of local supply and demand conditions by occupation in 78 metropolitan areas at the end of July 1964. Local offices in these areas reported on occupations for which they had held unfilled job openings for 15 days or more. Furthermore, since evidence of local labor demand is a prerequisite for federally financed training, records on training and placement by occupation under the Manpower Development and Training Act were appraised as an additional indicator of occupational shortages.

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ented biologists and bacteriologists needed in medical research to attendants offering limited skill and training in general demand for hospital facilities.

One of the most persistent shortages of health worker skills has been that of nursing. The long-term and extensive trained nurse shortage has led to a search for other means to satisfy the need for nursing services of expanding medical and health facilities. Most important of these is the use of practical nurses. Recruitment of licensed practical nurses through the Federal-State Employment Service network has risen sharply during the year. Practical nurses trained under MDTA have been readily placed; over 92 percent of trainees completing MDTA courses in practical nursing have secured training-related employment, compared with about 65 percent for all MDTA graduates. These data indicate not only a continuing need for such workers but also suggest a growing accommodation of hospital and other health services to the shortage of professional nurses.

The technological revolution in health services, as well as the increasing demand for these services, has had serious impact upon needs for other kinds of health personnel. Within this group, medical technologists are in shortest supply, although widespread needs for occupational and other therapists, medical record librarians, and medical, dental, and X-ray technicians also go unfilled.

Low wages, unfavorable working conditions, and transportation problems often adversely affect recruitment for medical and health services workers in lesser-skilled occupations. Furthermore, because of shortages of nurses, technicians, and related workers, health job functions have been restructured in some areas. This permits increased utilization of lesser-skilled workers with consequent increases in demand for health workers at this skill level.

Requirements for Educators Expand

The impact of the growing youth population upon educational facilities is moving up from primary to higher educational facilities. During the past year, U.S. Employment Service measures of hard-to-fill jobs suggest an intensification of the shortage of high school and college instructors. Increased shortages of teachers for special programs has followed stepped-up activity in vocational training and in specialized fields such as music, art, language, and athletics within our school systems. The tightening situation has undoubtedly been a major reason for salary increases for educators reported over the year.

Maine has heavy seasonal demand for timber cutters.

Added Demand for Metalworkers

A large increase in hard-to-fill demand for metalworkers, primarily welders, machinists, and other machine shop workers, has resulted from the general upturn in the durable goods sector of the economy. Evidence indicates that employers have some latitude for skill dilution and job breakdown and are using these techniques. They are also lengthening the workweek in some instances or reducing hiring specifications.

Nevertheless, demand for these workers is growing. Evidence of unsatisfied need is the rapid absorption of all MDTA-trained metalworkers and in burgeoning orders for these workers through the Employment Service's interarea recruitment system. In the skilled metalworking occupations, for example, openings in interarea recruitment increased 54 percent between October 1963 and October 1964, in contrast to a rise of 16 percent for all other skilled workers.

Reports on Unskilled Workers

Existing and developing stringencies for unskilled workers have been reported. These shortages are either of long duration and pervasive or of recent origin, localized, sporadic, and the result of unusual circumstance.

Shortages of long duration are frequently associated with jobs offering low wages, unfavorable working conditions, limited opportunities for advancement, and a negative social image. Typical are jobs for waiters and waitresses and other restaurant workers. Shortages of custodial-maintenance personnel and domestic help are also frequently reported.

Occupations for which heavy demand recurs seasonally in certain areas are often in short supply. Currently, tobacco laborers in Connecticut and timber cutters in Maine fall into this category.

The most recent types of unskilled worker shortages are localized and found in manufacturing industries, primarily in labor areas dominated or heavily influenced by a single industry in the process of rapid expansion. As a general rule, many of these reports of shortage should be evaluated cautiously, since restrictive hiring specifications, low wage rates, and unfavorable working conditions may be at the root of the problem.

Many Areas Find Stringencies

More than half (86) of the 150 major labor areas reported a variety of occupational stringencies. There seemed to be little relationship between the degree of overall unemployment in an area and the listing of specific shortages. Unfilled jobs frequently exist along with labor surpluses. Both Pittsburgh and Detroit—until recently areas of substantial and persistent unemployment—have been reporting shortages in numerous occupations over a long period.

Shortages in certain occupations, such as the stenographic, health service, and metalworking field, are found almost everywhere. Unmet needs for "experienced, competent" stenographic help were mentioned in at least 50 major areas. Some 40 areas mentioned a shortage of a variety of engineers. About 30 areas, coast to coast, needed social and welfare workers, and about an equal number sought registered nurses. Needs for machinists, tool and die makers, and machine tool operators were spread across virtually all major industrial centers of the country. Another category with broad, unsatisfied demand is mechanics and repairmen.

The concentration of American industry tends to intensify occupational shortages in certain geographic areas. The need for engineers and scientists, for example, has frequently been significant on the West Coast and in missile and spacecraft centers along the Eastern Seaboard. Although metalworkers have been needed in many cities, the bulk of the metalworking shortages have been in an industrial belt reaching from Chicago to New York and Boston.

Some Industries Short of Labor

Labor stringencies appeared to be centered in a few major durable goods manufacturing industries. Among these were steel mills, missiles and spacecraft, and shipbuilding. Substantial shortages continued in Federal, State, and local government agencies, particularly for workers to provide health, education, and welfare services; and, in private facilities, for medical and other health service workers.

In the primary metals industry, the basic steel industry reported a need for unskilled laborers for entry jobs. Mills in Gary-Hammond-East Chicago and Detroit were seeking large numbers of such workers through interarea recruitment. The jobs were difficult to fill in Gary-Hammond, despite a supply of locally available labor, because the hiring specifications called for workers with a high school education. Employment Services had successfully referred 500 workers, largely from out of State, and were seeking another 1,000. Following negotiations, employers agreed to accept local applicants demonstrating job potentialities usually found among high school graduates in tests administered by the local public employment office. This compromise was expected to ease, if not solve, the manpower problem.

Unmet labor needs in the transportation equipment industry ran the gamut of occupations and skill levels. Hard-to-fill openings existed for aeronautical engineers and engineering technicians in aircraft manufacture; for skilled pipefitters, metalworkers, and welders in shipbuilding and repair; for semiskilled subassemblers in automobile manufacture; and for unskilled laborers in the manufacture of motor vehicle parts and accessories. Aircraft needs were concentrated in St. Louis and Seattle; motor vehicle needs in Milwaukee and Detroit. Bulk job orders in interarea clearance in October 1964 in shipbuilding were more scattered, originating in several areas, including New London, Quincy, and Pascagoula.

Numerous reports of manpower shortage emanated from the machine tool industry in the spring of 1964. While there were recognized stringencies of skilled workers, it appeared that inability to recruit would not prevent the industry's achievement of its production goals. This conclusion has since been supported by developments. Despite an increase in hard-to-fill demand for metalworkers, the machine tool industry expanded its employment by 6 percent in 8 months and increased production by 30 percent over the year. In so doing, it lengthened its workweek slightly, although working hours were still considerably short of past peak levels. (See EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW, December 1964, p. 57.)

While stringencies in other than durable goods manufacture were not increasing sharply toward the end of 1964, they continued in several sectors of the economy. For example, in private medical facilities, out-of-area recruitment continued for social workers, trained nurses, licensed practical nurses, and hospital attendants, particularly in Arizona, California, Connecticut, Illinois, and Washington. These workers were also widely sought by Federal, State, and local government agencies in California, Pennsylvania, and Washington.

Besides medical and welfare workers, government agencies also sought teachers, stenographers, and typists. In addition, Federal facilities were recruiting for some engineers, including civil and electrical, and for engineering technicians. Needs were from both domestic and overseas sources.

YEAR-ROUND FARMHANDS

(*Continued from page 28*)

We seem to get more single applicants than married, but when we do succeed in placing a married man, it is good public relations. He may have relatives or friends to send us who are also seeking farmwork.

The success we have had in placing year-round farmhands has been the result of continuous recruitment, updating our methods, and striving for a better knowledge and understanding of our employers and their needs. We are constantly trying to get them to modify their job classifications to conform more nearly with the available supply, informing applicants of current employer hiring requirements, and keeping abreast of the supply and demand for farmworkers.

These field choppers blow ensilage into auger wagons for transport to a huge trench silo.

MANPOWER TRENDS

MIAMI JOB OUTLOOK BRIGHTENS

For the first time since March 1961, Miami, Fla., moved out of the category of substantial unemployment to one of moderate joblessness. This is reflected in the December classifications of relative labor supply in 150 major areas regularly surveyed by the Bureau of Employment Security and affiliated State agencies. This change increased to 121 the number of major areas with relatively low or moderate unemployment in December, compared with 112 so designated the year before. The improvement in Miami's unemployment situation was attributed to employment gains in several nonfactory industries and in apparel manufacturing, as well as to the relocation of some Cuban refugees to other parts of the country.

FARM CAUSES DECEMBER EMPLOYMENT DROP

Nonagricultural employment, usually unchanged between November and December, rose by 350,000 over the month to 66.6 million. December's decline of 750,000 in farm employment, however, was more than usual, as cold weather brought sharper-than-normal cutbacks in activity.

DECEMBER NONFARM PAYROLLS ADVANCE

Nonfarm payroll employment rose to a record 59.8 million in December, 1.8 million above the year before. The 400,000 advance from November was about twice that expected for the time of year. In manufacturing, the 75,000 drop in employment to 17.6 million--about half the customary November-December decline--was centered in the soft goods sector. Durable goods employment, which usually declines about 75,000 in this period, was virtually unchanged, with approximately one-third of the improvement representing the return of strikers to payrolls. Total factory employment was up nearly half a million over the year, with 90 percent of the increase among production workers.

THE EMPLOYMENT SITUATION IN 1964

Strongly reflecting the sustained, vigorous growth in general business activity, total employment rose 1.5 million from 1963 to a record average of 70.4 million in 1964. This rise exceeded the unusually large 1-1/4 million expansion in the labor force. Except for the 1959 recovery year, this was the largest annual gain in employment since 1956. Nonfarm jobs advanced even more--1.7 million over the year, but agricultural employment continued its long-term decline.

UNEMPLOYMENT TRENDS DOWN

Unemployment fell by 300,000 in 1964 to average 3.9 million, its lowest annual level in 5 years. Highlighting the favorable job developments was the first significant reduction in the unemployment rate since the recovery of 1961-62. Beginning early in 1964, the unemployment rate improved gradually, averaging 5.2 percent for the year, compared with 5.7 in 1963. The 5.0 percent rate in the final quarter of 1964 was the lowest quarterly rate since the fourth quarter of 1957.

The recent drop in jobless rates appears to have broken a 10-year uptrend. Prior to 1964, the rate in each of the last three business recoveries had leveled off at a higher point than where it was before the recession. By the end of 1964, however, the unemployment rate was below its pre-1961 recession level.

Unemployment rates averaged lower in 1964 than in 1963 for most worker groups. Especially sharp improvement occurred in the jobless rate for adult men, which dropped from 4.5 to 3.9 percent, and for married men whose rate declined from 3.4 to 2.8 percent, with both rates almost returning to the relatively low 1955-57 levels. For adult women, however, the rate edged down only slightly, while for teenagers, it remained close to 15 percent.

1.5 MILLION MORE NONFARM JOBS IN 1964

Nonfarm payroll employment increased steadily throughout 1964 to 58.2 million, up 1.5 million from 1963. The expansion that began in early 1961 speeded up in 1964, as goods-producing and related industries recorded sharper year-to-year increases than in 1963. Exceeding the 1962-63 gain by 400,000 jobs, the advance occurred in all major industry divisions except Federal Government.

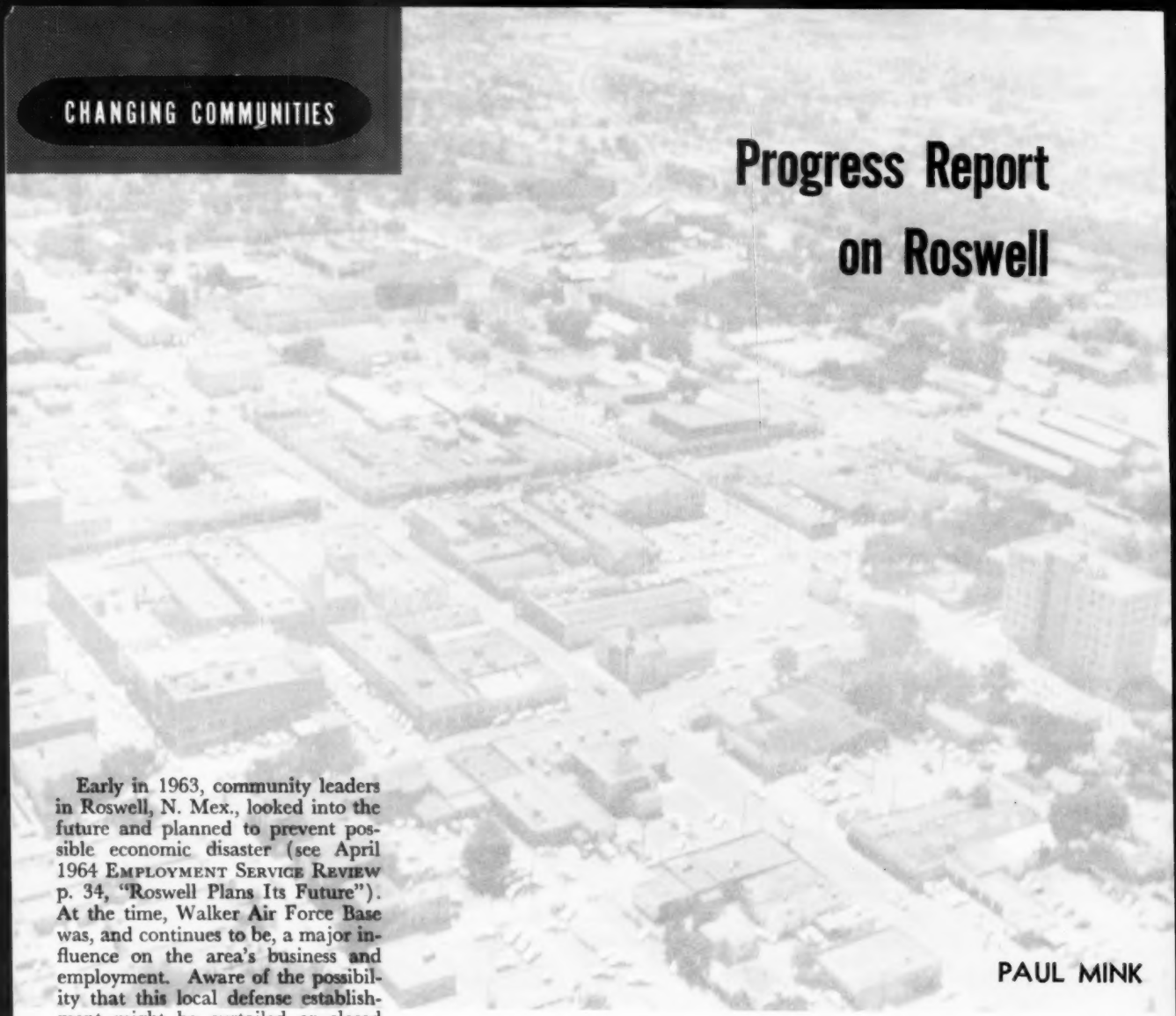
SERVICE INDUSTRIES ADD 1.1 MILLION NEW JOBS

Service-producing industries provided nearly two-thirds of the new jobs in 1964. This sector increased by 1.1 million, all in trade, service, and State and local government. Among goods-producing and related industries, construction expanded by 100,000 over 1963 to a record 3.1 million jobs. While still below their postwar high, transportation and public utilities gained 60,000 jobs. Manufacturing exceeded 1963 employment by 300,000.

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE

Of the 1-1/4 million expansion in the civilian labor force between 1963 and 1964, about one-half (600,000) were women 20 years of age and over. Adult men accounted for 400,000, and teenagers for about 250,000 of the growth. The high growth rate of women in the labor force underscores their steadily increasing role in the Nation's economic effort.

Progress Report on Roswell



PAUL MINK

Early in 1963, community leaders in Roswell, N. Mex., looked into the future and planned to prevent possible economic disaster (see April 1964 EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW p. 34, "Roswell Plans Its Future"). At the time, Walker Air Force Base was, and continues to be, a major influence on the area's business and employment. Aware of the possibility that this local defense establishment might be curtailed or closed altogether, the community sought solutions to problems that would then arise. Although it was felt that drastic defense curtailment was unlikely for at least 5 years, the community started preparing for the eventuality.

The only city of over 25,000 within 70 miles of the base, Roswell contains over four-fifths of the estimated 57,600 inhabitants of Chaves County, the area in which it is included. In 1963, the county's civilian employment totaled 17,700. Unemployment averaged 816, or 4.4 percent of the area work force.

The Community Economic Development Committee of the Roswell Chamber of Commerce developed a planning seminar and workshop to ease the impact of the base's closing, should it occur. This planning workshop—called "Operation Roswell Phase I"—was designed to enable an aggressive business community, with the advice of local, State, and Federal Government officials, to present ideas and suggestions on urban land use, industrial development, human resources, agriculture, water resources, oil, gas, minerals, tourism, highways, and recreation.

In September 1963, a group of local, State, and Federal Government representatives, local businessmen, and other community leaders gathered at the Walker Air Force Base for an all-day conference. Each topic was first presented in the general ses-

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This new $400,000 convalescent home in Roswell which serves eastern New Mexico began accepting patients in December 1964.

The new senior citizens' retirement village makes Roswell even more attractive as a "retirement town."

sion and then individual workshop groups, armed with an outline on a single subject, developed action programs. These programs assigned responsibility, suggested schedules, and indicated the help that would be needed and the sources from which it could be obtained. Plans were developed for improving local manpower resources, locating and developing desirable plant sites, modernizing downtown Roswell, and developing the community into a more suitable and desirable location for retirement.

Now, a little over a year after the community improvement program began, Roswell leaders find that their advance planning and action developed none too soon. Walker Air Force Base is one of the military installations recently scheduled for reduced activity. Although only 12 civilian jobs will be directly eliminated, over 950 military personnel will be transferred out of the area, and the loss of mililtary payroll may have far-reaching adverse economic effects on the community. Early planning and the recommended projects which were started and completed have given Roswell over a year's head start in reducing the impact of this economic loss.

Roswell's planning, was, of course, to attract new industry so as to diversify its economic base. One recommendation was to make suitable industrial sites available to prospective industry at attractive rates. The Roswell Industrial Corporation, itself an integral part of the new economic development program, now owns or controls six desirable industrial sites, all with full utilities and two with railroad frontages. These sites can be acquired by new or expanding business concerns at lowest possible cost and under the most favorable financial arrangements. Although no new major industry has located in Roswell, community leaders are optimistic that their efforts will soon be rewarded.

Development of the human resources potential of the area is another major factor in economic expansion for Roswell. One group formed in the September 1963 seminar, the Human Resources Committee, has provided outstanding leadership on problems related to manpower and vocational training problems and in efforts to improve the quality of the local labor supply. The local Employment Service office has always worked in close cooperation with the Roswell Chamber of Commerce and took part in the overall planning. It is called upon frequently to provide to industry general or specialized data concerning the area's available labor supply. The local office also assisted in upgrading the community's human resources by initiating MDTA training programs.

Currently, 25 men (13 local residents), are being trained in Roswell in the occupation of electronic installation, service and repairman; another scheduled course will train 35 cottage parents for a training school and hospital for retarded children. Approval has been obtained for an MDTA course to train 135 women in domestic service work or as "homemakers' assistants." A majority of these trainees were to be widowed, divorced, or abandoned mothers who receive public welfare aid. The retraining of 30 journeymen craft workers in basic and intermediate welding has also been approved.

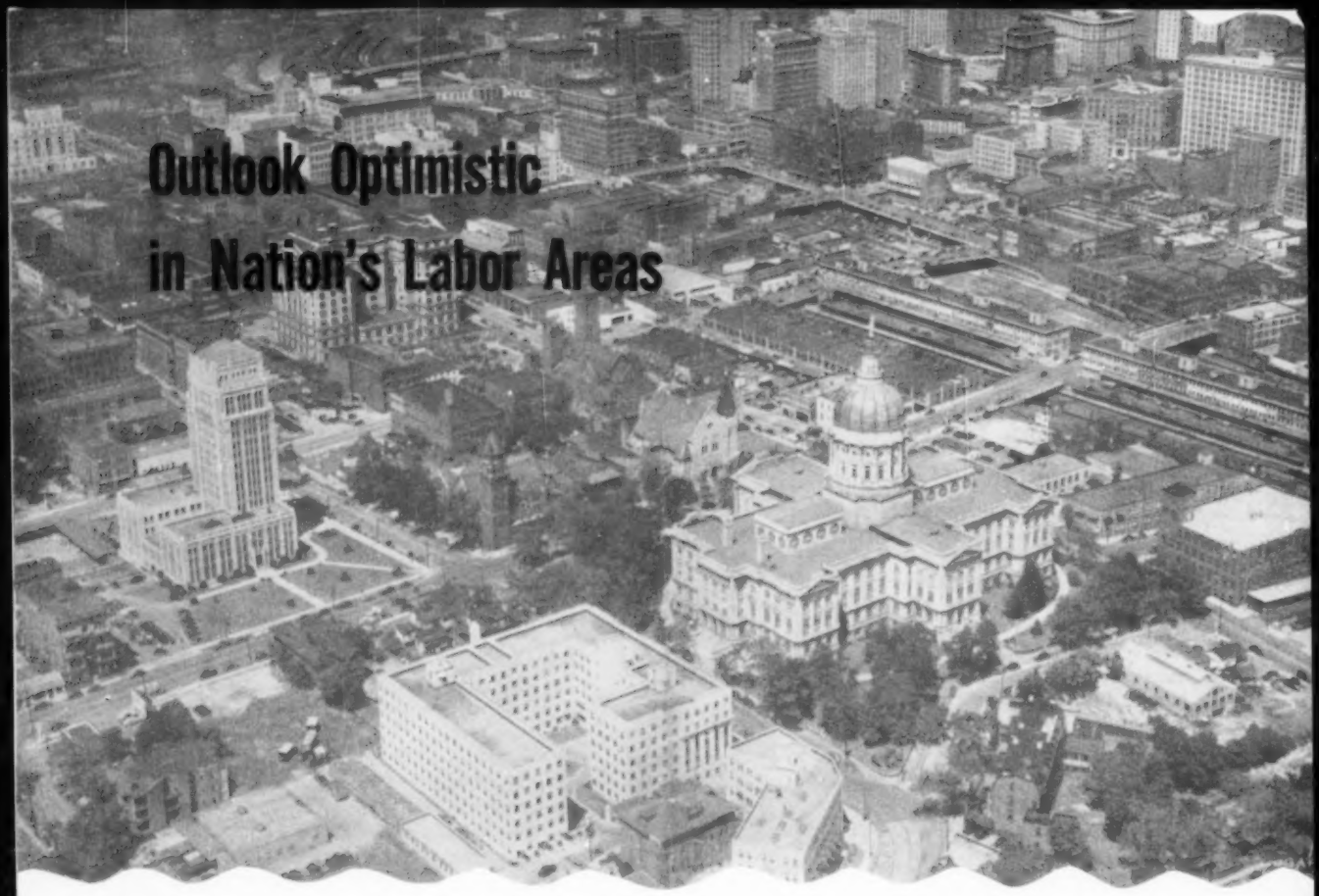
Roswell has also undertaken a downtown modernization and community facilities expansion program. The Downtown Revitalization Committee, formed in the September 1963 seminar, motivated the clearing of two blocks in the downtown business center formerly dominated by old, unsightly buildings. A new $400,000 nursing home as well as a new 60-unit apartment house for retired persons, both built with private capital, should further Roswell's goal of be-

(*Continued on page 57*)

The Eastern New Mexico Medical Center is part of the "new" Roswell.

Photos courtesy of the Roswell Chamber of Commerce

Outlook Optimistic in Nation's Labor Areas



Atlanta moved from moderate to low unemployment during 1964.

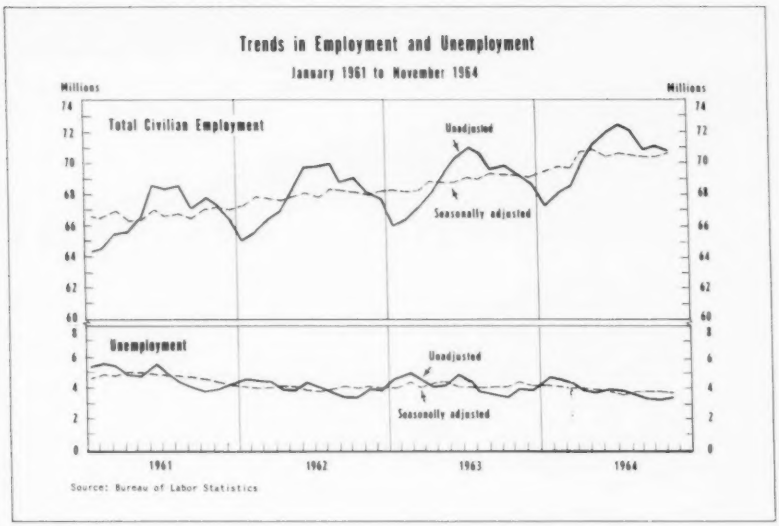
Record levels of output, employment, and income which prevailed in 1964 are expected to continue into 1965, although a slower rate of growth appears likely, according to most economists. In 1964, the Gross National Product (GNP) totaled an estimated $622 billlion, some 6.6 percent above 1963. An important impetus to the economy was the Federal income tax cut which, in turn, increased consumer spending and was reflected in sizable employment gains in manufacturing (which reached a peacetime high of 17.3 million), trade, service, and State and local government.

The optimistic 1965 outlook is supported in part by the reported expectation by business groups of planned capital outlays for new plant and equipment. These expenditures are expected to rise 5 percent to a record high of $47 billion during the year, according to a Department of Commerce study. Of this amount, manufacturers plan to spend over $20 billion, which would be 8 percent more than they spent for new plant and equipment during 1964. The price stability that characterized 1964 is expected to continue in the coming year; such increases as may occur will probably be selective in nature and limited in extent.

Despite the general optimism, there is some feeling of uncertainty as to whether the expansion in economic activity will be sufficient to keep pace with labor force growth. Another problem is the impact upon some industries and communities of further cutbacks in defense spending, resulting in the closing of a number of defense installations and bringing with it the possibility of a rise in local unemployment.

Unemployment Rate Drops

The vigorous advance in the U.S. economy during 1964 was reflected in a corresponding growth in employment, outstripping the expansion of the labor force. As a result, unemployment was lower in 1964 than in any year since 1957. U.S. civilian employment during 1964 averaged 70.4 million, approximately 1.5 million more than in 1963, according to preliminary estimates. Unemployment averaged 3.9 million during the year, nearly 300,000 below last year. The national unemployment rate averaged 5.2 percent in 1964, compared with 5.7 percent last year. Long-term unemployment (15 weeks or



longer) was at the lowest level since 1960.

Unemployment declined over the year, with all groups participating in the improvement. All segments of the work force, however, did not share equally in the unemployment decline. The unemployment rate among married men, reflecting the sharp rise in employment, was down to 2.8 percent. However, unemployment rates of close to 15 percent for youth (14–19 years) continue to cause considerable concern. The most serious problem is the unemployment rate of nonwhite youth, estimated to be almost twice as high as that for white youth.

Of the 150 major areas regularly surveyed by the U.S. Employment Service and affiliated State Employment Services, 31 were reclassified between January and December 1964 in the direction of lower unemployment, while only 2 areas were shifted to substantial unemployment categories as a result of declines in local industrial employment.

Moving out of classifications of substantial unemployment this year were Erie and Pittsburgh, both of which had been characterized as areas of substantial and persistent unemployment for many years. Philadelphia, Newark, Buffalo, Hamilton-Middletown, Chattanooga, Beaumont-Port Arthur, Worcester, and San Juan also moved from classifications of substantial unemployment (Group D) to a moderate unemployment category (Group C). For San Juan, the shift was the first such change since early in 1958.

Additional areas, including Atlanta, Gary-Hammond-East Chicago, Columbus, and Dayton, moved from classifications of moderate unemployment (Group C) to low unemployment (Group B). Chicago reported the lowest unemployment rate since 1957, while Philadelphia and St. Louis recorded the lowest rates since 1953.

Twenty-seven major areas were in the low unemployment Group B category in December 1964, 10 more than the year before. Twenty-nine areas were in the "substantial unemployment" category (Groups D, E, and F) in December 1964, compared with 38 a year earlier and 101 in March 1961, reflecting the low point of the business cycle 1 month earlier. Widespread over-the-year improvement in employment conditions was further reflected in the removal of over 150 "smaller" and "very small" areas from the list of areas of substantial unemployment.

During 1964, for the first time, major cities with high unemployment have been designated separately from the entire labor area in which they are located, as redevelopment cities. This Department of Commerce designation is based on the same criteria as for substantial and persistent unemployment areas. Currently, Buffalo, Cleveland, Newark, Oakland, Philadelphia, and Toledo are in this category.

Employment Developments in Major Industries and Areas

During 1964, total nonfarm employment in the Nation's 150 major industrial centers averaged about 2 percent above 1963, with much of the gain attributable to an increase of jobs in the nonmanufacturing sector, particularly trade and construction. Significantly higher averages were registered in 1964 in such durables manufacturing industries as *steel, autos, nonelectrical machinery,* and *fabricated metals.* The positive effect of these employment advances was largely offset, however, by the decline in jobs in such defense-oriented industries as *electrical machinery, aircraft,* and *ordnance.* Among the nondurables manufacturing industries,

Item	Annual average (thousands)	
	1964	1963
Civilian labor force	74, 233	72, 975
Employment	70, 357	68, 809
Unemployment	3, 876	4, 166
Unemployment rate (percent)	5. 2	5. 7

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Seasonal employment declines are expected in the food processing and fabricated metals industries in the San Francisco-Oakland area.

higher average employment was experienced in the 150 areas during 1964 in *tobacco, chemicals,* and *food processing,* while lower job levels prevailed in these areas in *apparel, textiles, shoes,* and *petroleum.*

On the basis of employers' hiring plans reported to public employment offices in the 150 major centers throughout the Nation, nonfarm employment changes up to early spring are likely to be dominated by seasonal influences with most of the gain centering in the nonmanufacturing sector as a result of resumption of construction activity. The largest hiring increases in manufacturing are expected in apparel, nonelectrical machinery, fabricated metals, and chemicals, according to area employer reports.

In the Nation's *basic steel* industry, reports from the major centers indicate that employment was substantially increased over the year, with the largest gain occurring in the key Pittsburgh area. Significant increases over the year also occurred in the Chicago, Gary-Hammond-East Chicago, St. Louis, Steubenville-Weirton, and Youngstown-Warren areas. A slight further net employment advance is expected by early spring for the steel industry.

Labor supply groups	December 1964	December 1963	December 1962	December 1961	March 1961
Total all groups	150	150	150	150	150
Group A	0	0	0	0	0
Group B	27	17	10	4	0
Group C	94	95	99	86	49
Group D	25	33	31	48	71
Group E	2	3	7	7	17
Group F	2	2	3	5	13

In the thriving *auto* industry, major areas report a sharp increase in employment over the year, with Detroit experiencing by far the largest gain. Significant over-the-year hiring was also registered in the Flint and Lansing areas. However, a sharp decline occurred in the South Bend area as a result of the Studebaker closing, beginning in December 1963. Auto employment is expected to decline seasonally until early spring, with the largest reductions scheduled in the Detroit area. Continuation of the current excellent car sales could, of course, alter the pattern.

Nonelectrical machinery employment in 1964 was significantly above the year before, with the most prominent gains occurring in such areas as Chicago, Cleveland, Davenport-Rock Island-Moline, Minneapolis-St. Paul, and Peoria. Area employers forecast a slight overall hiring uptrend for the industry through to early spring, notably in Minneapolis-St. Paul and Milwaukee.

Largest over-the-year employment gains in *fabricated metals* were regis-

tered in the Cleveland and Detroit areas in response to increased demand from the auto and construction industries. For the coming months, seasonal increases in needs for structural metal are expected to result in employment gains for the industry, particularly in the Chicago, Kansas City, Los Angeles-Long Beach, San Francisco-Oakland, and St. Louis areas.

On the negative side, employer reports from the major *electrical machinery* centers show that the industry employment declined over the year, with the largest losses in the Los Angeles-Long Beach, New York City, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Boston, and Newark areas. Defense contract completions, cancellations, and conversions were cited most prevalently as reasons for the reductions. The effect of these losses was only partially mitigated by the over-the-year hiring gains by television and radio factories. Little overall change is forecast for electrical machinery employment up to early spring, according to area reports, as gains in Chicago, San Jose, St. Louis, and Syracuse are expected to be almost counterbalanced by scheduled losses in the Boston and Los Angeles-Long Beach areas.

The Aircraft Industry

Changes in defense procurement also substantially reduced over-the-year employment in the *aircraft* industry, according to employers' reports from the leading centers. Curtailments were reported in the Seattle, New York City, San Diego, Los Angeles-Long Beach, Sacramento, Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, Cincinnati, Columbus, Birmingham, Hartford, and Dallas areas. Moreover, a slight net employment decline is forecast for the industry until early spring, with further reductions likely in the San Diego and Wichita areas.

Another major defense-related industry, *ordnance,* experienced substantial over-the-year employment losses, the largest occurring in the Denver, Baltimore, Lawrence-Haverhill, New York City, San Jose, and Cleveland areas. A further moderate decline appears in the offing to mid-winter, primarily in the Los Angeles-Long Beach and San Jose areas.

For the *shipbuilding* industry, employment averaged lower during 1964 than in the previous year. Little overall change is expected in this industry to early spring, as planned hiring in the Philadelphia and Seattle areas is virtually offset by the scheduled losses in the San Francisco-Oakland area. Recently announced cutbacks in employment at naval shipyards in Portsmouth (N.H.) and Brooklyn are expected to be protracted over a considerable period of time.

Among other durables, average employment in the *furniture* industry during 1964 was slightly below that in 1963. Over the year, the largest losses occurred in the Chicago, Cincinnati, and New York City areas. A slight employment gain is expected for the furniture industry by early spring, notably in the Los Angeles-Long Beach area. *Instruments* employment averaged slightly more in 1964 than during 1963. Most significant over-the-year job gains occurred in the Philadelphia and Rochester areas. Little overall change in employment is expected for the instruments industry, according to area employer reports extending to early spring, except for a small gain in Rochester.

Seasonal influences are expected to control the employment trends among the nondurables industries through to midwinter, according to area reports. Largest gains are planned in the *apparel, textiles, food processing, shoe,* and *chemicals* industries, while reductions are scheduled in *tobacco.* No change is expected in *petroleum refining* employment, according to area employer reports of manpower needs in coming months.

—Branch of Area Labor Reports, U.S. Employment Service.

REPORT ON ROSWELL

(Continued from page 53)

coming an even more attractive "retirement town."

Always a popular location for smaller conventions, Roswell will soon be in a position to bid for larger gatherings. Hotel and motel accommodations, already available for 1,800 persons, are being expanded. One locally owned motel-restaurant is being enlarged to provide dining and meeting facilities for 500 participants.

Roswell is awakening to its uncertain economic base, and its actions to rectify the situation should serve as an example to other potentially distressed communities throughout the Nation. Farsighted, enlightened leadership exists in every community. The missing ingredient, the stimulant to serve as catalyst, may come from many sources. Local Employment Service managers can, and often must, serve as the spark to motivate community leaders to set their goals and to initiate action.

Legislative Gains for Farmworkers

The Nation's farmworkers are expected to benefit from three major legislative accomplishments during 1964:

(1) The Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act;

(2) provisions of the Economic Opportunity Act aimed at improvements for migrant workers in the areas of education, child day care, sanitation, and housing; and

(3) the Housing Act of 1964, which provides Federal assistance for construction of low-rent farm housing.

The subject matter of four of the migrant labor bills sponsored by Sen. Harrison Williams (N.J.) were incorporated into the latter two pieces of legislation. Thus 5 of the 12 farm labor measures before Congress became law within a 2-month interval, August and September 1964.

Legislative activity during 1965 is expected to concentrate in the areas of: minimum wage, collective bargaining, child labor, improved employment services to migrant workers, and extension and expansion of the Migrant Health Act, currently scheduled to expire on June 30, 1965.

STATISTICS

Table 1.—Selected Local Office Employment Service Activities, November 1964

Table 2.—Nonagricultural Placements, by Special Applicant Groups, November 1964

Table 3.—Nonagricultural Placement, by Industry Division, November 1964

Table 4.—Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Areas, November 1964 and November 1963

Table 5.—Status of MDTA Institutional and ARA Training Programs Through November 1964

More detailed data are provided monthly in EMPLOYMENT SERVICE STATISTICS, available on request to the U.S. Employment Service, Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, D.C., 20210.

Table 1.—Selected Local Office Employment Service Activities, November 1964.

State	Nonfarm Job Openings		Nonfarm Employer Contacts				New Applications 2/		Counseling Interviews		Placements			
												Nonagricultural		
	Total available openings 1/	Percentage change from year-ago	Employer visits	Percentage change from year-ago 3/	Promotional telephone contacts	Percentage change from year-ago 3/	Total	Percentage change from year-ago	Total	Percentage change from year-ago	Total agricultural	Total	Percentage change from year-ago	Short-time
Total	909649	9.7	96223	-8.1	126310	-12.3	852630	3.1	171519	4.7	426791	508134	3.1	167667
Alabama	18668	27.6	2206	-12.9	821	26.3	13145	33.4	1331	15.3	1872	11392	21.0	4258
Alaska	2021	75.7	205	-19.0	215	-35.4	1389	7.2	225	.9	14	903	7.4.3	144
Arizona	13327	-.3	1245	-21.7	3335	58.2	11176	9.6	1456	18.4	94271	9029	-5.8	2373
Arkansas	10180	7.7	1018	-21.5	934	-5.3	11482	-1.1	1993	5.2	9985	8479	8.8	3111
California	99609	-2.8	12062	.9	8567	28.7	125570	9.2	18322	5.3	12671	51524	-12.0	22860
Colorado	8758	-1.5	956	-19.8	1598	17.9	10925	12.4	1547	-34.7	1038	6305	-.1	2721
Connecticut	19274	23.4	1017	-14.1	1867	39.0	12562	-12.8	2018	13.8	143	6914	-3.2	1555
Delaware	1566	14.1	171	-45.9	39	—	1273	-12.1	716	26.3	12	475	26.7	64
Dist. of Col.	10127	3.7	686	10.1	1098	-16.4	4826	9.8	1819	27.5	0	5169	44.1	1455
Florida	30825	3.4	2741	-13.0	482	-56.8	15706	-3.1	2206	4.1	12312	19131	-3.8	4376
Georgia	19071	15.2	1115	-27.7	502	-45.8	13215	3.2	2083	5.3	1704	12039	4.0	2212
Guam	1775	-33.2	0	—	14	—	98	9.2.2	0	—	0	37	—	0
Hawaii	2485	5.1	119	-68.1	38	—	2386	-23.9	297	-3.9	23	1075	-26.3	46
Idaho	3225	-3.1	700	4.6	115	-25.8	4934	5.2	908	-19.0	1310	2257	-13.4	869
Illinois	33880	9.2	2673	-19.1	14950	-21.1	25628	-9.3	6026	-13.5	485	14832	2.4	3942
Indiana	21589	25.6	2534	9.9	1680	-28.8	19255	1.2	2088	-3.6	427	10817	1.5.0	1826
Iowa	10706	17.1	1833	-10.0	1321	-66.3	7692	10.0	1274	-26.1	2922	6104	2.4	2035
Kansas	9469	-7.5	1650	-2.9	1805	26.6	7834	14.8	2077	5.0	208	5044	-20.2	2041
Kentucky	8095	3.6	445	-53.1	752	-50.7	11549	-2.8	3240	-12.9	1780	4593	-18.5	756
Louisiana	12436	23.2	928	-38.0	545	-54.6	8058	-.8.5	1167	-21.5	5360	7360	3.3	3203
Maine	8555	-2.7	210	-44.6	360	-19.3	3285	-.7	1268	25.7	79	1680	.7	137
Maryland	11613	-1.2	1368	-17.0	1998	-.3	11116	-23.7	1908	2.6	2869	6914	-3.8	1296
Massachusetts	25248	-.7	4490	4.5.2	9464	-.8	26785	-.5.3	6924	4.0.4	1083	11745	-12.3	2736
Michigan	31553	31.6	1253	-33.8	3818	-7.8	47970	6.0	5975	24.5	1114	18430	22.7	4969
Minnesota	12063	4.9	2103	-2.6	2199	-18.7	13268	1.4	3175	12.8	493	6763	-2.6	2109
Mississippi	12446	3.6	1278	-27.7	1115	-29.0	12661	11.7	3924	12.7	103229	7872	-4.0	1795
Missouri	17620	14.3	2804	37.0	821	-27.5	19433	22.0	4120	4.0.4	15491	8527	11.8	2289
Montana	2936	-10.1	1628	-2.2	1120	-37.0	4286	16.0	1938	-4.1	548	2324	-6.6	722
Nebraska	7035	16.7	1368	-34.2	1480	-47.7	4942	1.4	1626	-16.1	724	4752	1.1	2134
Nevada	3256	1.2	343	-13.8	49	—	4617	30.9	746	9.0.3	107	2080	-7.7	836
New Hampshire	2655	-10.0	202	-5.3.3	137	-43.6	2557	-18.2	630	-16.8	30	1050	-2.2	55
New Jersey	26960	9.1	2358	-22.8	4261	26.7	21422	-6.4	3713	20.2	1426	11537	13.1	3231
New Mexico	4086	-7.0	938	13.3	586	-2.7	5828	21.8	1890	55.9	656	2994	-9.2	1385
New York	108555	4.5	7539	.1	29868	-10.2	74882	9.0	19029	8.0	3588	65293	1.3	29723
North Carolina	23437	15.1	1643	-26.8	2038	-18.8	22522	-4.3	3015	-22.3	29257	10702	-12.0	1860
North Dakota	3915	21.3	419	-5.4	501	14.1	3415	-.1	549	4.8	361	2304	6.7	729
Ohio	36397	21.5	3078	-11.9	2805	-13.6	45846	2.0	6588	-9.5	7328	19374	18.9	8859
Oklahoma	15170	4.1	2222	-12.9	809	-24.0	9856	(4/)	3504	26.3	3402	12313	6.2	6975
Oregon	7337	-2.9	1582	-13.0	1525	-37.0	13273	5.6	3855	12.6	2456	3895	-22.6	884
Pennsylvania	36481	21.8	6242	-15.0	6219	-22.9	43255	5.7	12622	-2.7	13493	21714	14.0	6628
Puerto Rico	11068	92.1	719	-28.5	569	-39.9	12352	-4.8	2432	11	336	9287	12.6.3	923
Rhode Island	4886	8.2	822	-10.5	1723	-15.6	3809	5.5	1134	28.7	1	2381	1	433
South Carolina	8388	-3.7	618	-42.2	237	-50.1	7858	2.2	999	40.9	2372	5382	-7.9	1011
South Dakota	2320	-16.1	394	14.9	170	7.6	2414	10.5	578	-39.5	136	1387	-22.8	720
Tennessee	14006	10.8	1383	-17.5	620	-39.7	10971	-12.5	1964	-4.2	61288	8746	2.3	1629
Texas	66923	21.8	8206	7.3	6160	21.5	57949	12.9	11084	15.1	26242	47232	24.1	17065
Utah	4036	-3.7	895	13.3	610	20.8	4406	12.1	1238	-21.1	163	2657	-9.2	723
Vermont	2709	25.6	103	-45.8	122	—	1436	10.5	273	12.3	30	1066	23.6	139
Virginia	18996	16.8	1155	15.3	643	-35.2	11992	-8.9	3122	4.7	401	8704	12.8	1853
Virgin Islands	2210	-10.6	39	—	58	—	197	41.7	40	—	2	136	32.0	0
Washington	15230	-7.7	1567	-7.2	1575	-5.7	16604	-4.4	3906	-3.2	1099	5796	-11.0	2446
West Virginia	3304	-25.3	610	-17.1	586	-32.3	5178	-17.9	1960	-6.9	113	1905	-45.4	532
Wisconsin	19381	52.5	1910	-29.9	991	-49.2	15808	-9.4	4730	-11.2	247	6649	-4.4	845
Wyoming	1788	14.7	430	-5.9	395	18.3	1732	4.5	267	-5.0	90	1062	12.0	449

1/ Openings on hand at the beginning of month plus openings received during the month.
2/ Should not be interpreted as a measure of the total number of new job applicants at Employment Service offices, since there are some types of applicants for whom written applications are not taken..
3/ Not computed if State volume for either period was under 50.
4/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 2.—Nonagricultural Placements, by Special Applicant Groups, November 1964.

State	Total	Women	Persons under 22 years	Persons 45 years and over	Veterans 1/	Handicapped
Total	508,134	218,047	119,747	104,293	75,841	22,836
Alabama	11,392	4,434	4,276	1,522	871	228
Alaska	903	348	200	147	181	40
Arizona	9,029	4,064	1,622	1,500	1,669	385
Arkansas	8,479	3,016	2,604	1,479	1,262	519
California	51,524	26,786	13,992	11,641	7,981	1,306
Colorado	6,305	1,741	1,569	1,071	1,672	209
Connecticut	6,914	3,121	1,877	1,453	992	452
Delaware	475	207	103	99	61	13
Dist of Col.	5,169	3,017	632	706	723	193
Florida	19,131	8,618	3,988	3,949	2,753	695
Georgia	12,039	4,886	2,791	1,747	1,474	346
Guam	37	0	10	3	3	0
Hawaii	1,075	527	235	92	116	49
Idaho	2,257	831	652	472	451	93
Illinois	14,832	4,797	3,236	2,699	3,316	513
Indiana	10,817	4,396	3,161	1,801	1,479	478
Iowa	6,104	2,024	1,877	1,272	1,293	433
Kansas	5,044	1,773	1,253	1,136	949	291
Kentucky	4,593	1,778	1,156	867	719	121
Louisiana	7,360	2,295	2,531	1,284	949	281
Maine	1,680	640	539	263	199	74
Maryland	6,914	3,250	1,415	1,407	899	161
Massachusetts	11,745	6,109	2,760	2,302	1,212	364
Michigan	18,430	5,921	4,850	3,244	2,825	1,133
Minnesota	6,763	2,494	2,020	1,416	1,618	434
Mississippi	7,872	3,585	2,194	1,148	706	209
Missouri	8,527	3,165	2,347	1,556	1,455	401
Montana	2,324	691	630	429	507	141
Nebraska	4,752	1,043	1,136	1,137	1,349	508
Nevada	2,080	961	304	503	470	54
New Hampshire	1,050	411	240	176	192	77
New Jersey	11,537	6,818	2,486	2,376	858	326
New Mexico	2,994	1,077	523	516	549	147
New York	65,293	38,376	10,064	18,759	7,083	3,209
North Carolina	10,702	4,861	3,114	1,309	1,032	465
North Dakota	2,304	745	831	351	362	162
Ohio	19,374	5,941	4,299	4,705	4,478	928
Oklahoma	12,313	3,546	2,002	3,460	3,179	977
Oregon	3,895	1,676	999	719	751	188
Pennsylvania	21,714	9,882	5,415	5,041	2,787	1,829
Puerto Rico	9,287	1,266	1,032	1,527	543	168
Rhode Island	2,381	1,224	827	489	211	151
South Carolina	5,382	2,646	1,453	867	540	157
South Dakota	1,387	333	366	288	357	59
Tennessee	8,748	3,731	2,234	1,211	1,093	313
Texas	47,232	17,948	10,000	9,500	7,845	2,422
Utah	2,657	1,130	721	498	556	167
Vermont	1,066	397	350	176	128	37
Virginia	8,704	3,749	2,193	1,155	670	219
Virgin Islands	136	92	38	5	1	3
Washington	5,796	1,723	1,374	1,114	1,165	275
West Virginia	1,905	793	603	356	261	87
Wisconsin	6,649	2,912	2,351	1,129	772	302
Wyoming	1,062	252	272	221	274	44

1/ Includes veterans of all wars.

Table 3.—Nonagricultural Placements, November 1964.

STATE	INDUSTRY DIVISION						
	TOTAL	CONSTRUCTION	MANUFACTURING	WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	SERVICE		ALL OTHER 1/
					TOTAL	DOMESTIC	
TOTAL	508,134	35,337	103,003	128,363	181,589	103,582	59,242
ALABAMA	11,352	1,269	1,627	2,842	4,925	2,526	729
ALASKA	563	54	159	138	270	153	282
ARIZONA	9,625	525	922	2,750	3,631	2,153	1,201
ARKANSAS	8,475	957	1,968	2,061	2,767	1,618	726
CALIFORNIA	51,524	1,253	6,799	12,091	19,595	11,540	11,786
COLORADO	6,305	637	642	1,909	2,032	561	1,090
CONNECTICUT	6,914	354	2,056	2,022	2,061	1,275	381
DELAWARE	475	63	110	117	158	59	27
DIST OF COL	5,165	65	72	945	1,473	1,009	2,536
FLORIDA	15,131	2,385	2,251	3,264	7,524	4,242	1,706
GEORGIA	12,635	1,762	2,462	2,714	4,475	2,865	626
GUAM	37	25	2	3			7
HAWAII	1,675	142	55	386	377	94	115
IDAHO	2,257	184	341	605	812	555	311
ILLINOIS	19,832	343	4,357	4,301	4,656	1,477	1,175
INDIANA	10,817	595	3,822	3,084	2,652	1,501	664
IOWA	6,114	617	1,243	2,092	1,357	628	755
KANSAS	5,044	595	689	1,302	1,551	563	907
KENTUCKY	4,553	276	829	1,287	1,667	726	534
LOUISIANA	7,360	760	823	1,977	3,184	1,370	616
MAINE	1,680	241	697	356	257	127	129
MARYLAND	6,514	847	1,705	1,109	2,840	1,827	413
MASSACHUSETTS	11,745	445	3,558	3,540	3,679	1,087	523
MICHIGAN	18,430	1,097	5,619	4,993	5,501	2,365	1,220
MINNESOTA	6,763	377	2,114	1,730	1,557	890	985
MISSISSIPPI	7,872	843	2,109	1,713	2,701	2,060	506
MISSOURI	8,527	387	2,214	2,910	2,188	1,084	823
MONTANA	2,324	210	359	661	728	344	360
NEBRASKA	4,752	748	950	1,390	911	460	753
NEVADA	2,080	133	108	613	900	490	326
NEW HAMPSHIRE	1,050	148	492	148	190	51	72
NEW JERSEY	11,537	400	3,471	1,983	5,309	3,604	374
NEW MEXICO	2,554	352	174	786	1,209	750	408
NEW YORK	65,253	1,096	12,847	11,263	37,149	23,378	2,938
NORTH CAROLINA	10,702	1,488	3,265	1,754	3,505	2,080	690
NORTH DAKOTA	2,304	275	191	786	575	320	473
OHIO	19,374	1,825	4,346	6,047	5,755	3,362	1,401
OKLAHOMA	12,313	1,089	1,523	3,802	4,234	2,104	1,665
OREGON	3,855	184	961	1,155	1,100	633	491
PENNSYLVANIA	21,714	924	6,205	7,568	6,007	3,248	1,010
PUERTO RICO	9,267	194	1,078	564	442	205	7,009
RHODE ISLAND	2,381	138	1,026	641	455	275	81
SOUTH CAROLINA	5,362	690	1,626	755	1,976	1,511	331
SOUTH DAKOTA	1,387	181	104	397	400	257	305
TENNESSEE	8,798	703	2,513	2,215	2,669	1,863	588
TEXAS	47,232	4,955	7,072	14,367	16,068	9,555	4,730
UTAH	2,657	198	353	756	932	230	378
VERMONT	1,066	205	242	278	291	115	50
VIRGINIA	8,704	1,361	1,450	2,216	2,883	1,567	794
VIRGIN ISLANDS	136	12	17	17	76	53	14
WASHINGTON	5,756	191	868	1,294	1,376	741	2,067
WEST VIRGINIA	1,565	55	298	556	745	395	171
WISCONSIN	6,649	176	2,679	1,701	1,458	801	635
WYOMING	1,062	139	90	268	276	161	289

1/ Includes forestry and fishing; mining; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; finance, insurance, and real estate; government; establishments not elsewhere classified.

Table 4.—Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Areas

NOVEMBER 1964 AND NOVEMBER 1963

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE		UNEMPLOYMENT				EMPLOYMENT					
	Number		Number		Rate 1/		TOTAL 2/		Nonagricultural Wage and Salary			
							Number		Total		Manufacturing	
	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov.P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
Total - 150 Areas	47,005.4	46,199.5	1,934.6	2,170.3	XXX	XXX	45,071.5	44,043.1	39,513.2	38,723.3	11,901.4	11,757.0
Alabama												
*Birmingham	246.3	243.7	8.5	12.5	3.4	5.1	237.8	231.2	204.9	199.0	61.3	58.9
*Mobile	120.6	120.4	4.7	5.6	3.9	4.7	115.9	114.8	96.9	95.7	17.7	17.5
Arizona												
*Phoenix	299.1	287.5	13.2	11.4	4.4	4.0	285.9	276.1	228.7	219.7	45.0	42.3
Arkansas												
*Little Rock-North Little Rock	114.0	112.5	2.3	3.2	2.0	2.8	111.7	109.3	95.0	92.6	18.7	18.0
California												
Fresno	154.9	153.2	9.7	10.0	6.3	6.5	145.2	143.2	98.9	96.1	17.0	16.3
Los Angeles-Long Beach	2,922.0	2,851.1	167.8	158.2	5.7	5.5	2,754.2	2,692.9	2,448.9	2,381.6	748.9	757.9
Sacramento	224.0	221.6	12.6	11.7	5.6	5.3	211.4	209.9	187.8	186.9	29.1	32.2
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	317.8	302.3	20.4	18.3	6.4	6.1	297.4	284.0	233.7	220.6	39.7	38.2
San Diego	341.0	339.2	26.0	24.5	7.6	7.2	315.0	314.7	262.4	263.0	50.0	55.9
San Francisco-Oakland	1,223.1	1,292.2	70.1	70.5	5.3	5.5	1,253.0	1,221.7	1,108.9	1,077.8	199.2	198.0
San Jose	323.9	309.4	21.3	17.0	6.6	5.5	302.6	292.4	262.7	255.1	82.2	86.6
Stockton	101.6	96.1	8.4	8.3	8.3	8.6	93.2	87.8	69.3	66.5	12.5	11.9
Colorado												
**Denver	440.0	442.9	16.1	14.9	3.7	3.4	423.9	428.0	357.6	369.8	62.7	70.4
Connecticut												
*Bridgeport	153.8	153.1	7.2	7.5	4.7	4.9	146.6	145.6	132.8	131.7	69.1	70.0
*Hartford	296.9	295.1	9.2	9.7	3.1	3.3	287.7	285.4	262.9	259.3	93.8	92.7
*New Britain	47.6	47.1	2.4	2.2	5.0	4.7	45.2	44.9	41.5	41.2	23.8	23.9
*New Haven	155.6	153.1	5.6	6.7	3.6	4.4	150.0	146.4	133.6	130.2	42.4	42.2
*Stamford	79.1	79.5	3.0	2.8	3.8	3.5	76.1	76.7	63.4	63.9	22.0	24.1
*Waterbury	80.7	80.8	4.3	4.4	5.3	5.4	76.4	76.4	68.4	68.5	37.0	37.9
Delaware												
*Wilmington	187.3	185.5	4.8	6.0	2.6	3.2	182.5	179.5	158.2	154.1	65.3	61.5
District of Columbia												
*Washington	997.0	979.7	23.1	23.9	2.3	2.4	973.9	955.8	870.9	852.9	37.8	37.2
Florida												
*Jacksonville	185.3	182.3	4.6	5.8	2.5	3.2	180.7	176.5	154.4	150.0	21.7	20.7
*Miami	433.6	442.6	21.7	37.3	5.0	8.4	411.9	405.3	335.1	329.0	48.3	46.6
*Tampa-St. Petersburg	288.3	278.6	9.3	10.8	3.2	3.9	279.0	267.8	222.8	213.8	41.0	39.2
Georgia												
*Atlanta	528.6	505.9	14.1	14.3	2.7	2.8	514.5	491.6	456.3	434.5	103.7	99.4
Augusta	81.0	80.8	2.5	3.0	3.1	3.7	78.5	77.8	66.5	65.5	25.5	25.1
Columbus	69.1	66.3	2.3	2.6	3.3	3.9	66.8	63.7	55.4	52.4	17.9	17.1
Macon	74.8	74.4	2.4	2.6	3.2	3.5	72.4	71.8	61.2	60.6	12.4	11.9
*Savannah	68.3	68.1	2.5	3.2	3.6	4.6	65.8	64.9	56.1	54.9	14.5	14.8
Hawaii												
Honolulu	204.9	198.5	8.1	9.4	3.9	4.7	196.8	189.1	175.0	167.2	15.0	14.6
Illinois												
*Chicago	2,931.7	2,916.2	95.0	117.0	3.2	4.0	2,836.7	2,799.2	2,567.4	2,529.0	872.9	852.0
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	124.5	118.6	3.3	3.5	2.6	3.0	121.2	115.1	105.9	99.9	42.7	39.5
Peoria	125.7	119.8	3.0	4.2	2.3	3.5	122.7	115.6	106.3	100.5	43.2	40.1
Rockford	96.0	93.9	2.5	3.1	2.6	3.2	93.5	90.8	82.1	77.9	44.0	39.9
Indiana												
*Evansville	80.1	79.1	2.4	3.1	3.0	3.9	77.7	76.0	68.8	67.1	26.6	25.2
*Fort Wayne	105.4	103.6	2.3	3.3	2.2	3.2	103.1	100.3	93.1	90.2	37.9	36.1

Table 4.—Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Areas

NOVEMBER 1964 AND NOVEMBER 1963

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE		UNEMPLOYMENT				EMPLOYMENT					
	Number		Number		Rate 1/		TOTAL 2/		Nonagricultural Wage and Salary			
							Number		Total		Manufacturing	
	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
Indiana (Cont'd)												
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	214.1	206.8	6.0	9.3	2.8	4.5	208.1	197.5	191.8	181.1	104.0	97.0
*Indianapolis	351.8	349.4	9.9	11.7	2.8	3.3	341.9	337.7	312.7	308.1	106.1	103.4
*South Bend	90.1	93.5	5.9	3.2	6.5	3.4	84.2	90.3	77.0	83.2	29.3	36.2
Terre Haute	43.9	43.7	1.8	2.1	4.1	4.8	42.1	41.6	36.2	36.0	9.9	9.9
Iowa												
Cedar Rapids	68.0	66.6	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.6	67.1	65.5	54.9	53.7	22.9	23.3
*Des Moines	122.3	122.5	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.1	119.3	119.9	104.0	104.4	21.3	21.1
Kansas												
*Wichita	153.6	150.8	5.2	5.6	3.4	3.7	148.4	145.2	130.8	127.8	46.7	43.8
Kentucky												
*Louisville	305.9	300.3	10.3	12.0	3.4	4.0	295.6	288.3	260.5	255.8	91.7	89.7
Louisiana												
*Baton Rouge	93.5	91.5	2.8	3.4	3.0	3.7	90.7	88.1	76.3	73.8	15.4	15.3
*New Orleans	369.1	360.2	15.2	17.1	4.1	4.7	353.9	343.1	314.9	304.8	55.4	50.8
*Shreveport	109.7	107.5	4.1	4.3	3.8	4.0	105.6	103.2	77.0	75.3	9.9	9.8
Maine												
*Portland	65.6	64.2	2.6	2.8	4.0	4.4	63.0	61.4	56.0	54.6	13.5	12.9
Maryland												
*Baltimore	759.1	752.3	26.7	31.5	3.5	4.2	732.4	720.8	662.5	650.7	187.8	189.9
Massachusetts												
Boston	1,235.0	1,227.1	50.4	56.2	4.1	4.6	1,184.6	1,170.9	1,060.6	1,046.9	270.5	278.2
Brockton	50.7	50.0	2.8	3.8	5.5	7.6	47.9	46.2	41.1	39.5	16.7	15.8
Fall River	54.6	56.3	4.5	5.0	8.2	8.9	50.1	51.3	42.4	43.7	21.5	23.1
Lawrence-Haverhill	85.7	88.0	5.8	6.0	6.7	6.8	79.9	82.0	72.1	74.1	40.0	42.6
Lowell	52.4	52.3	4.0	4.0	7.6	7.6	48.4	48.3	43.7	43.7	18.5	19.9
New Bedford	62.5	63.5	4.4	5.0	7.0	7.9	58.1	58.5	50.0	50.4	25.5	26.1
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	205.4	205.8	11.0	12.7	5.3	6.2	194.4	193.1	177.5	174.5	69.2	67.0
Worcester	132.5	132.0	6.3	7.5	4.7	5.7	126.2	124.5	113.9	112.2	47.6	47.2
Michigan												
Battle Creek	64.0	63.2	2.8	3.2	4.4	5.1	61.2	60.0	52.4	51.3	23.9	22.9
*Detroit	1,475.5	1,415.4	47.0	52.0	3.2	3.7	1,428.5	1,363.4	1,287.0	1,242.3	538.0	520.4
*Flint	150.6	145.6	2.8	2.4	1.9	1.6	147.8	143.2	134.0	129.1	78.8	76.0
*Grand Rapids	146.4	146.0	3.7	3.2	2.5	2.2	142.7	142.8	124.7	124.3	53.7	53.5
Kalamazoo	70.6	69.8	1.6	2.2	2.3	3.2	69.0	67.6	61.0	59.5	26.4	25.8
*Lansing	120.0	115.6	2.9	3.1	2.4	2.7	117.1	112.5	101.6	97.0	34.7	32.0
*Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	53.6	54.4	2.2	2.3	4.1	4.2	51.4	52.1	45.3	45.8	24.1	24.4
*Saginaw	70.8	68.6	1.4	1.4	2.0	2.0	69.4	67.2	60.1	57.9	27.9	26.2
Minnesota												
*Duluth-Superior	59.8	59.5	2.8	3.8	4.7	6.4	57.0	55.7	50.9	49.7	9.9	9.4
*Minneapolis-St. Paul	715.6	699.5	21.6	23.3	3.0	3.3	694.0	676.2	623.4	604.9	163.9	160.0
Mississippi												
*Jackson	93.9	93.0	2.1	2.6	2.2	2.8	91.8	90.4	73.8	72.4	11.8	11.5
Missouri												
*Kansas City 3/	518.4	512.8	25.6	25.7	4.9	5.0	492.8	487.1	432.5	426.3	110.5	109.2
*St. Louis	898.6	890.4	32.0	36.2	3.6	4.1	866.6	854.2	770.8	758.0	263.3	258.9
Nebraska												
*Omaha	201.4	201.3	5.4	6.2	2.7	3.1	196.0	195.1	170.8	169.6	36.5	35.6
New Hampshire												
*Manchester	50.4	50.8	1.7	2.2	3.4	4.3	48.7	48.6	44.1	44.0	16.8	17.2

Table 4.—Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Areas

NOVEMBER 1964 AND NOVEMBER 1963

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE		UNEMPLOYMENT				EMPLOYMENT					
	Number		Number		Rate 1/		TOTAL 2/		Nonagricultural Wage and Salary			
							Number		Total		Manufacturing	
	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
New Jersey												
Atlantic City	67.6	67.3	5.3	6.2	7.8	9.1	62.3	61.1	49.5	48.8	9.1	9.1
*Jersey City	290.4	295.2	16.0	19.5	5.5	6.6	274.4	275.7	253.5	254.3	114.9	115.9
*Newark	819.0	816.9	37.5	43.7	4.6	5.3	781.5	773.2	688.1	680.8	233.6	235.1
*New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	233.4	233.5	10.3	12.1	4.4	5.2	223.1	221.4	196.6	194.3	89.6	91.8
*Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	494.6	496.5	24.6	29.0	5.0	5.8	470.0	467.5	399.4	397.2	162.1	165.9
*Trenton	133.6	133.0	4.5	5.9	3.4	4.4	129.1	127.1	114.0	112.2	39.0	38.8
New Mexico												
*Albuquerque	111.5	107.4	4.4	3.9	3.9	3.6	107.1	103.5	93.4	90.2	8.7	8.7
New York												
*Albany-Schenectady-Troy	279.5	276.1	10.6	11.2	3.8	4.1	268.9	264.9	235.6	231.3	61.5	61.6
*Binghamton	93.3	92.8	3.4	4.2	3.6	4.5	89.9	88.6	79.5	78.1	35.9	34.5
*Buffalo	523.5	518.3	22.0	29.0	4.2	5.6	501.5	489.3	443.3	436.1	168.7	166.9
*New York	5,345.6	5,321.5	264.1	271.9	4.9	5.1	5,081.5	5,049.6	4,433.9	4,404.9	1,104.7	1,113.0
*Rochester	293.8	283.0	4.6	7.3	1.6	2.6	289.2	275.7	256.5	246.0	116.0	111.4
*Syracuse	232.4	232.9	8.8	10.2	3.8	4.4	223.6	222.7	192.1	190.5	64.1	62.9
*Utica-Rome	127.4	130.3	6.8	7.2	5.3	5.5	120.6	123.1	102.0	103.7	37.3	37.6
North Carolina												
Asheville	58.4	56.5	2.2	2.6	3.8	4.5	56.2	53.9	46.9	44.8	17.9	16.9
Charlotte 3/	156.2	152.6	3.9	4.8	2.5	3.2	152.3	147.8	131.0	126.9	34.8	33.5
Durham	53.9	53.0	1.9	2.5	3.4	4.8	52.0	50.5	45.0	43.7	13.0	12.9
Greensboro-High Point	130.4	128.7	2.8	3.2	2.1	2.5	127.6	125.5	109.1	106.9	45.8	45.2
Winston-Salem	92.7	91.9	2.3	2.7	2.5	2.9	90.4	89.2	78.8	77.7	37.4	38.4
Ohio												
*Akron	209.7	205.7	7.4	7.7	3.5	3.7	202.3	198.0	182.6	178.4	82.3	80.8
*Canton	134.2	130.4	4.7	7.5	3.5	5.8	129.5	122.9	114.1	107.7	55.5	50.6
*Cincinnati	465.3	464.3	16.9	18.5	3.6	4.0	448.4	445.8	400.8	398.0	141.9	143.6
*Cleveland	824.1	812.7	27.1	31.2	3.3	3.8	797.0	781.5	721.7	707.5	275.7	274.4
*Columbus	329.6	326.6	10.2	10.3	3.1	3.2	319.4	316.3	286.6	283.5	72.9	75.0
*Dayton	311.3	303.3	7.7	9.2	2.5	3.0	303.6	294.1	269.7	261.2	109.8	105.4
Hamilton-Middletown	70.3	70.7	3.2	4.9	4.6	6.9	67.1	65.8	58.8	57.7	26.7	26.0
Lorain-Elyria	75.0	72.7	2.5	3.9	3.3	5.4	72.5	68.8	61.7	60.0	30.9	29.9
Steubenville-Weirton	68.3	63.7	2.2	3.7	3.2	5.8	66.1	60.0	59.5	53.7	32.1	27.7
*Toledo	190.6	189.4	5.8	8.3	3.0	4.4	184.8	181.1	163.6	160.8	60.5	60.3
*Youngstown-Warren	190.8	184.4	5.9	11.3	3.1	6.1	184.9	173.1	163.3	153.5	77.8	70.0
Oklahoma												
*Oklahoma City	246.8	242.1	8.7	8.3	3.5	3.4	238.1	233.8	203.8	199.6	25.7	25.2
*Tulsa	181.6	175.0	6.3	7.4	3.5	4.2	175.3	167.6	146.7	139.0	31.7	29.6
Oregon												
*Portland	373.7	364.0	16.0	15.8	4.3	4.3	357.7	348.2	297.6	287.9	68.4	66.9
Pennsylvania												
*Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	223.8	220.5	6.4	11.1	2.9	5.0	217.4	209.4	191.6	184.3	98.1	93.9
*Altoona	52.2	51.9	3.9	4.8	7.5	9.2	48.3	47.1	42.4	41.1	12.4	11.4
*Erie	100.0	99.1	3.3	6.4	3.3	6.5	96.7	92.7	83.7	80.2	40.7	37.6
*Harrisburg	172.0	171.0	4.5	6.9	2.6	4.0	167.5	164.1	150.4	147.1	34.5	33.7
*Johnstown	86.8	86.8	4.3	6.7	5.0	7.7	82.5	80.1	70.5	68.2	25.4	23.8
*Lancaster	125.3	124.2	2.7	3.8	2.2	3.1	122.6	120.4	101.1	98.9	49.3	47.7
*Philadelphia	1,888.7	1,886.0	89.0	110.3	4.7	5.8	1,799.7	1,775.7	1,562.7	1,541.7	539.3	535.7
*Pittsburgh	900.8	910.3	35.0	64.7	3.9	7.1	865.8	845.6	774.7	751.1	280.9	264.2
*Reading	128.9	127.9	4.1	4.6	3.2	3.6	124.8	123.3	107.3	105.9	53.3	52.5
*Scranton	93.8	95.9	7.2	9.8	7.7	10.2	86.6	86.1	76.2	75.6	31.8	31.0
*Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	130.3	133.4	8.4	11.5	6.4	8.6	121.9	121.9	106.4	106.0	45.1	44.2
*York	110.0	107.5	2.5	4.8	2.3	4.5	107.5	102.7	91.4	85.8	45.4	40.3
Puerto Rico												
Mayaquez	29.4	29.5	3.6	4.2	12.2	14.2	25.8	25.3	19.5	19.1	8.3	8.3
Ponce	44.4	42.3	6.4	6.6	14.4	15.6	38.8	35.6	27.4	25.3	8.9	8.2
San Juan	233.6	233.8	12.1	13.0	5.2	5.6	221.5	220.8	186.7	185.3	30.6	31.1

Table 4.—Work Force, Unemployment, and Employment in 150 Major Labor Areas

NOVEMBER 1964 AND NOVEMBER 1963

STATE AND AREA	WORK FORCE		UNEMPLOYMENT				EMPLOYMENT					
	Number		Number		Rate 1/		TOTAL 2/		Nonagricultural Wage and Salary			
							Number		Total		Manufacturing	
	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963	Nov. P/ 1964	Nov. 1963
	(IN THOUSANDS)						(IN THOUSANDS)					
Rhode Island												
**Providence-Pawtucket	360.0	363.5	17.9	20.5	5.0	5.6	342.1	343.0	308.6	309.1	130.5	130.4
South Carolina												
*Charleston	81.2	80.5	2.7	3.2	3.3	4.0	78.5	77.3	63.4	62.1	10.0	10.0
*Greenville	116.5	114.5	4.9	5.1	4.2	4.5	111.6	109.4	93.4	91.2	46.7	45.9
Tennessee												
*Chattanooga	124.1	121.2	4.8	7.5	3.9	6.2	119.3	113.7	101.4	96.7	42.2	40.5
*Knoxville	153.5	148.6	4.8	5.7	3.1	3.8	148.7	142.9	127.1	121.4	44.2	42.9
*Memphis	278.7	273.2	8.4	8.6	3.0	3.1	270.3	264.6	217.1	211.9	49.6	47.7
*Nashville	214.0	INA	6.6	INA	3.1	INA	207.4	201.2	172.8	167.8	52.0	50.3
Texas												
Austin	98.4	94.7	3.1	3.7	3.2	3.9	95.3	91.0	78.8	74.5	5.9	5.6
Beaumont-Port Arthur	123.9	123.2	7.3	6.9	5.9	5.6	116.6	116.2	99.7	99.1	35.8	35.1
Corpus Christi	78.0	74.4	3.2	3.4	4.1	4.5	74.8	71.0	62.4	59.0	8.7	8.7
*Dallas	542.9	526.0	19.7	19.5	3.6	3.7	523.2	506.5	459.8	445.5	110.2	109.6
El Paso	102.1	101.0	5.5	5.0	5.3	5.0	96.6	96.0	82.5	82.2	16.1	15.9
*Fort Worth	248.4	241.3	9.1	10.9	3.7	4.5	239.3	230.4	200.5	192.1	59.3	54.0
*Houston	618.9	604.6	20.8	24.1	3.4	4.0	598.1	580.5	515.2	497.1	97.6	94.1
*San Antonio	230.0	229.9	10.0	10.7	4.4	4.6	220.0	219.2	188.4	187.8	24.4	24.1
Utah												
*Salt Lake City	196.7	193.2	8.4	6.5	4.3	3.4	188.3	186.7	163.3	162.3	28.7	30.1
Virginia												
Newport News-Hampton	94.4	90.6	1.8	2.4	1.9	2.6	92.6	88.2	81.8	77.7	26.9	24.3
**Norfolk-Portsmouth	194.6	192.5	5.0	5.4	2.5	2.8	189.6	187.1	163.2	161.0	17.9	17.2
**Richmond	222.6	215.3	4.1	4.3	1.8	2.0	218.5	211.0	192.8	186.0	47.5	45.4
**Roanoke	76.0	74.1	2.2	2.0	2.8	2.7	73.8	72.1	64.7	63.1	15.7	14.9
Washington												
*Seattle	485.4	494.4	27.9	35.5	5.7	7.2	457.5	458.9	397.7	399.3	110.1	116.2
*Spokane	93.7	94.1	5.6	5.7	6.0	6.1	88.1	88.4	73.3	73.7	12.2	12.4
*Tacoma	104.7	102.6	6.1	7.1	5.8	6.9	98.6	95.5	82.4	79.9	17.5	16.9
West Virginia												
*Charleston	90.6	92.6	5.2	5.7	5.7	6.2	85.4	86.9	75.8	77.1	21.3	22.6
*Huntington-Ashland	91.5	91.0	5.7	7.4	6.2	8.1	85.8	83.6	73.8	71.2	25.3	24.2
*Wheeling	66.3	66.7	3.4	5.0	5.1	7.4	62.9	61.7	53.1	51.7	16.5	16.5
Wisconsin												
*Kenosha	43.1	44.1	1.1	1.2	2.4	2.7	42.0	42.9	37.9	38.6	22.2	22.8
*Madison	108.2	104.7	2.6	3.0	2.4	2.9	105.6	101.7	90.9	86.8	14.3	13.3
*Milwaukee	542.7	534.6	15.3	18.8	2.8	3.5	527.4	515.8	479.6	473.2	191.8	192.2
*Racine	57.1	55.0	1.5	2.0	2.7	3.6	55.6	53.0	49.0	46.6	24.2	22.3

NOTES:

* Nonagricultural wage and salary employment statistics for these areas have been developed entirely or in part under the current employment statistics program operated jointly by State employment security agencies, the Bureau of Employment Security, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

** Nonagricultural wage and salary employment statistics for these areas have been developed entirely or in part under the BLS employment statistics program jointly with an agency other than the State employment security agency.

P/ Data for Nov. 1964 preliminary.

1/ Unemployment Rate--Unemployment as a percent of work force. Unemployment rates shown are not seasonally adjusted.

2/ Includes persons involved in labor-management disputes.

3/ Change of area definitions.

INA Information not available.

Table 5.—Status of MDTA Institutional and ARA Training Programs Through November 1964

State	MDTA Institutional Program				ARA Program 2/			
	Approved Projects		Approved Trainees		Approved Projects		Approved Trainees	
	Nov. 1964	Cumulative	Nov. 1964	Cumulative	Nov. 1964	Cumulative	Nov. 1964	Cumulative
TOTAL	308	4,711	31,295	267,187	15	860	484	38,661
Alabama	-	36	-	6,294	-	12	-	1,084
Alaska	-	15	-	1,698	-	8	-	225
Arizona	1	32	305	2,204	-	4	-	215
Arkansas	-	59	103	1,623	3	33	130	1,270
California	24	370	2,783	23,699	-	2	-	84
Colorado	1	53	125	2,192	-	6	-	116
Connecticut	1	129	198	10,123	1	14	16	1,113
Delaware	1	9	32	523	-	-	-	-
Dist. of Columbia	6	37	337	2,597	-	-	-	-
Florida	18	100	1,264	6,636	-	2	-	107
Georgia	24	58	845	4,402	-	5	-	493
Guam	2	2	85	85	-	-	-	-
Hawaii	1	19	45	742	-	6	-	137
Idaho	6	28	75	507	-	5	-	137
Illinois	21	215	1,176	16,398	-	27	-	1,592
Indiana	6	94	204	4,944	-	5	-	522
Iowa	5	67	130	2,271	-	2	-	60
Kansas	9	70	175	2,147	-	4	-	58
Kentucky	4	164	113	7,602	-	51	-	1,559
Louisiana	2	4	80	140	-	1	-	30
Maine	6	75	-	4,002	2	27	35	824
Maryland	3	34	381	2,654	-	9	-	511
Massachusetts	20	217	2,208	10,150	-	28	-	738
Michigan	18	241	2,086	12,596	-	71	-	4,730
Minnesota	1	68	60	5,776	-	11	-	1,237
Mississippi	-	5	-	2,205	-	-	-	-
Missouri	5	172	332	8,046	-	8	-	490
Montana	6	52	91	1,005	-	19	-	707
Nebraska	-	45	-	2,546	-	-	-	-
Nevada	1	42	65	1,987	-	5	-	265
New Hampshire	6	46	180	1,914	-	-	-	-
New Jersey	7	165	123	5,545	-	29	-	1,756
New Mexico	6	37	117	1,252	1	21	16	998
New York	6	257	4,800	25,046	-	4	-	280
North Carolina	3	89	2,620	4,916	-	62	-	1,407
North Dakota	1	50	60	834	-	17	-	357
Ohio	25	244	2,445	11,633	2	40	38	1,235
Oklahoma	5	55	230	5,392	-	48	-	2,283
Oregon	2	55	880	3,899	-	2	-	85
Pennsylvania	16	255	2,485	12,975	1	58	100	3,299
Puerto Rico	-	224	-	5,522	-	10	-	590
Rhode Island	1	34	385	1,160	-	13	-	1,108
South Carolina	2	21	900	6,396	-	4	-	407
South Dakota	1	20	8	396	-	13	-	328
Tennessee	1	98	300	4,795	-	33	-	1,031
Texas	11	163	394	6,401	2	33	36	646
Utah	1	38	20	1,041	-	-	-	-
Vermont	9	41	182	1,045	-	3	-	70
Virginia	1	72	40	4,123	-	1	-	96
Virgin Islands	-	27	-	499	-	-	-	-
Washington	4	65	1,165	5,820	1	10	50	400
West Virginia	1	39	20	3,724	2	50	63	3,012
Wisconsin	3	88	572	4,719	-	41	-	925
Wyoming	4	16	71	346	-	2	-	24
American Samoa	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	20

1/ Monthly data increase unless otherwise noted.
2/ Includes institutional and on-the-job projects.

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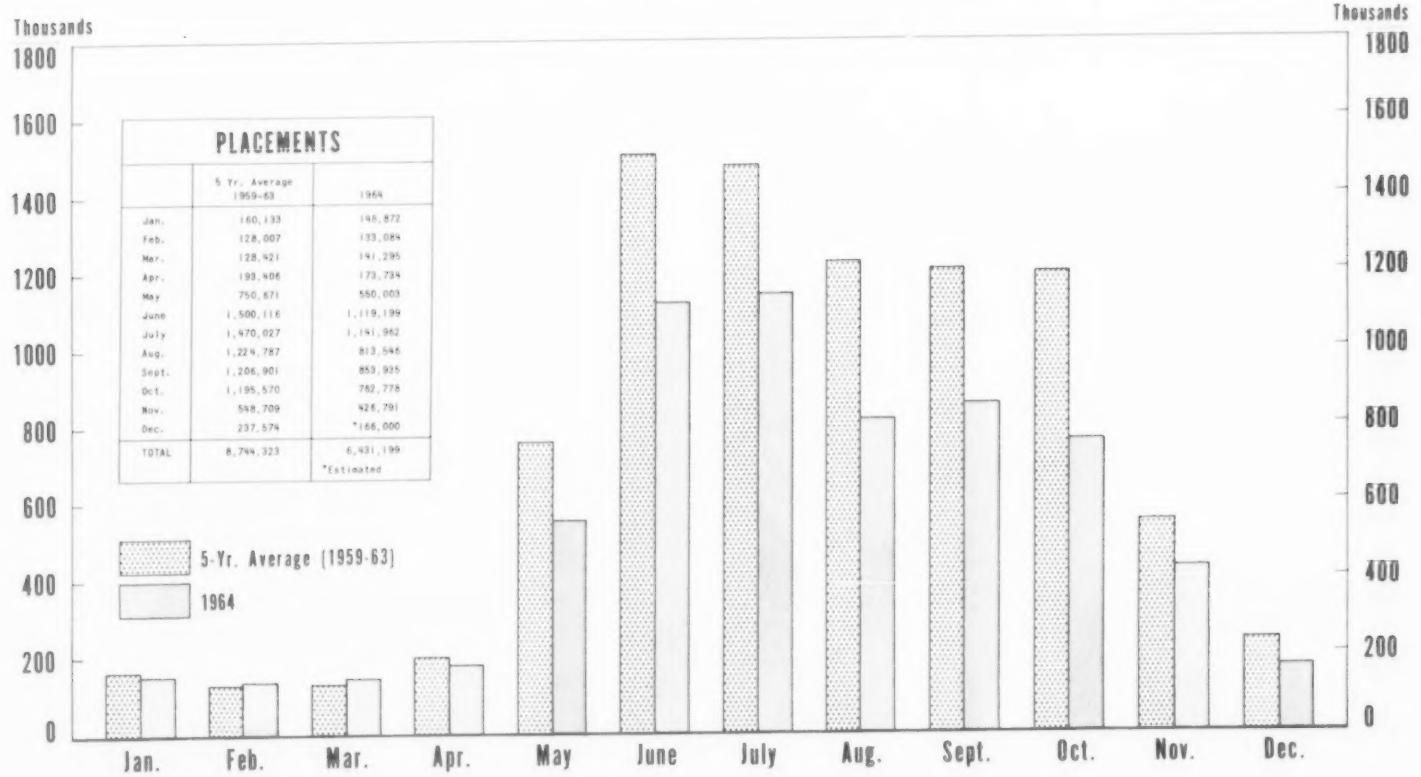
FARM PLACEMENTS BY MONTH

FIVE YEAR AVERAGE 1959-63 AND 1964



PLACEMENTS

	5 Yr. Average 1959-63	1964
Jan.	160,133	145,872
Feb.	128,007	133,084
Mar.	128,921	141,295
Apr.	193,406	173,734
May	750,671	550,003
June	1,500,116	1,119,199
July	1,470,027	1,141,962
Aug.	1,224,787	813,546
Sept.	1,206,901	853,935
Oct.	1,195,570	782,778
Nov.	548,709	426,791
Dec.	237,574	*166,000
TOTAL	8,794,323	6,431,199

*Estimated

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UNIT
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OFFICIAL BUSINESS

PENALTY FOR PRIVATE USE TO AVOID
PAYMENT OF POSTAGE, $300
(GPO)

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